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ABSTRACT

Following a brief memorial message and a dedicatory tribute to Calvin D. Catterall, a leader in the field of school psychology, this volume provides a description of the origins of the International School Psychology Association and interviews with five school psychologists: Bram Norwich, University of London, England; Tony Cline, London, England; Ian McEwen, Dumphries, Scotland; Rosine DeBray, University of Paris, France; and Jean Claude Guillemard, Dourdan, France. A monologue on the developmental training of psychologists by Kalman Benyamini, Hebrew University, Jerusalem, Israel, is also included. The six psychologists discuss their own backgrounds and training in school psychology, their practices at present, and the requirements of training programs in psychology in their countries and institutions. Collectively the interviews and the monologue provide an overview of the field of school psychology from an international perspective and illustrate the training practices and employment opportunities for school psychologists in different countries. (NRB)

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VOICES IN INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

Interviews In Honor of Calvin D. Catterall

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VOICES IN INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

Interviews In Honor of Calvin D. Catterall

FRANCES M. CULBERTSON

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IN MEMORIAM

CALVIN D. CATTERALL

1925-1984

On the morning of Wednesday, July 4, 1984, the President of the International School Psychology Association, Anders Poulsen, informed the participants of the VII International School Psychology Colloquium, Orleans, France, of the tragic death of Calvin D. Catterall, co-founder of the International School Psychology Association.

Calvin D. Catterall, born in 1925, was reared and educated in the State of California. He was very active in the field of school psychology, serving both as a school psychologist and an administrator. His professional activities were exceptionally notable. He served twice as the President of the California Association of School Psychologists and Psychometrists. He was elected President of the National Association of School Psychologists. He was co-initiator with Frances Mullen, of the International School Psychology Committee, which was initially a joint committee of the APA, Division of School Psychology (Division 16) and the National Association of School Psychology.

He was co-covener, with Frances Mullen, of the First International Colloquium in School Psychology, Munich, Germany. He served as Editor of the International School Psychology Newsletter, "WORLD-GO-ROUND," and was a driving force in International School Psychology. He edited three volumes of "Psychology in the Schools in International Perspective." His energy, efforts and life interests were deeply involved and committed to the International School Psychology movement. Under his dedicated and inspired leadership the International School Psychology Committee developed into the International School Psychology Association. He died in France, while attending the VII International School Psychology Convention. As Anders Paulsen, President (1985) of the International School Psychology Association noted; "He was on duty to his very end."

These series of interviews are presented in honor of a man who is sorely missed and whose equal will be hard to find in the field of International School Psychology. To him, we say:

"Forgotten? No, we never do forget:

We let the years go by; wash them clean with tears,
Leave them to bleach out in the open day,
Or lock them carefully, like dead friends' clothes,

Till we shall dare unfold them without pain--

But we forget not, never can forget."

"A Flower of a Day," Dinah Mulock Craik
1826-1887

"For memory truly is the treasury of all things."

Cicero, 55 B.C.

A TRIBUTE TO CALVIN D. CATTERALL

1925-1984

Herbert G.W. Bischoff, President
International School Psychology Association

It is with pleasure that I accept this opportunity on behalf of the International School Psychology Association to write a few words about Dr. Calvin Catterall.

Dr. Catterall devoted much of his life to the work of school psychology. The outgrowth of his efforts include a truly international association of school psychologists, worldwide efforts to assure the psychological rights of the child and a feeling of common purpose among school psychologists.

This volume is a fitting tribute to a school psychologist who viewed his life's work in international perspectives. The work Dr. Catterall helped start and so energetically promoted will live on to strengthen our united efforts on behalf of school children and the people who work with them throughout the world.

ORIGINS OF THE INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY ASSOCIATION

Reminiscenses of Frances A. Mullen, March, 1985

ISPA evolved from a joint committee on international school psychology established in 1972 by the two U.S. organizations in that field: NASP (National Association of School Psychologists, USA), and Division 16 (Division of School Psychology of the American Psychological Association).

The committee was co-chaired by Calvin D. Catterall and the writer. Both of us were members of both organizations. Catterall was president of NASP when it approved the committee at its spring 1972 convention. I had a suggestion for an international committee placed on the agenda for Div. 16's annual Board meeting in Honolulu, August, 1972. I had been president of Div. 16 twenty years earlier, but was in 1972 more heavily involved in the International Council of Psychologists which I had served as editor of its newsletter for the previous seven years, and would go to serve as president and later secretary-general.

I did not know Catterall and was unaware of the NASP action until I was informed in Honolulu that I had been appointed co-chair of a joint committee. I now assume that it was Catterall who discovered that both Boards were considering an international committee and suggested that it become a joint committee. Perhaps the two Boards, long at odds over basic issues around the training of school psychologists, saw the idea of

a joint international committee as one area in which they could work together and perhaps come to understand each other better.

I then still lived, as I had for a life time, in Chicago and Catterall was in the process of moving from California to Ohio. Soon after the Honolulu convention, I wrote Catterall in Ohio, suggesting some first steps, but we did not succeed in arranging a meeting until December, 1972. We then talked of many possible areas of action, but since the deadline for program proposals for the APA and Div. 16 convention for September 1973 in Montreal was imminent, we concentrated on plans for a symposium there. During the fifties and sixties when I was Assistant Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools in charge of special education, I got in the habit of going to Europe every second summer, dividing my five week leave between climbing in the Alps from France to Yugoslavia and Greece, and attendance at professional conferences in psychology or special education. Since my retirement in 1966 I had been editor of the newsletter of the International Council of Psychologists. I therefore had many names to suggest, of persons involved in school psychology who might be intrigued into coming to the U.S. to join our symposium. So did Catterall. Returning to our homes we went into an orgy of telephoning, telegraphing, and letter writing and were able to meet the deadline with a distinguished list of psychologists from other countries and to win approval of the symposium by APA and Div. 16. That first ISP symposium had as participants:

Douglas Bray, New Zealand

Feriha Baymur, Turkey

Harold Blackwell, Canada

Miguelina Hernandez, Chicago and Puerto Rico

Georgie Hyde, Cairo, Egypt who talked on school psychology in Britain

Kirsten Pauss, Norway

Komal C. Saraf, Trenton, N.J. who talked on psychological services in schools for the handicapped in India.

I chared the program; Catterall was the discussant. It drew a standing-room-only crowd and elicited good discussion. We also secured time and space on the Montreal program for an open meeting of our committee, thus providing another lively forum and producing viable suggestions for future activities.

Meanwhile in April, 1973, Catterall and I drafted a "Statement of Purposes and Possible Activities" for the committee and distributed it with a covering letter to an initial mailing of approximately 200 psychologists thought to be working in school psychology in the U.S. and elsewhere. That first letter asked for help in expanding the mailing list, mentioned the hope of establishing a newsletter, and asked for paragraphs or brief articles on the correspondent's own work in school psychology, or on significant developments in school psychology in the respondent's country. The purposes of the committee were listed as follows:

1. To foster communication between psychologists working in educational settings around the world.

2. To encourage the implementation of promising practices in school psychology throughout broad regions of the world.

3. To raise the effectiveness of education and to facilitate the maximum contribution of psychology to education all over the world.

First ISPC newsletter published. Responses to the "Statement of Purposes" mailing provided news for the first issue of the committee's newsletter under the title World-Go-Round, Vol. I, No. 1, June, 1973. Reports had come from Argentina, Brazil, England, Israel, Italy, Poland, Wales, New York City, Trenton, New Jersey, and Kent, Ohio. Financial contributions (amounts unspecified) from the two parent organizations were reported, and individual contributions of $5 or more from individuals were requested. The purposes quoted above were repeated.

Possible activities to implement those purposes were listed:

1. Collect news of school psychology in different countries and disseminate it either by a newsletter or other channels.

2. Identify school psychologists in the U.S. and other countries who would welcome visits from school psychologists from other parts of the world (previsioning SHARE).

3. Make presentations at meetings of national and international associations such as:

American and Canadian Psychological Associations

National Assn. of School Psychologists

International Council of Psychologists

International Assn. for Cross Cultural Psychology

International Assn. of Applied Psychology.

4. Explore the possibility of a conference on school psychology at the international level, either separately or in conjunction with another conference (previsioning ISPC's later series of colloquia).

5. Disseminate information about international conferences of interest to school psychologists.

6. Promote study tours to other countries to study school psychology.

7. Stimulate interest in cross cultural research of interest to school psychologists.

Activities already under way were reported:

1. Contacts with UNESCO, the Fulbright Exchange of Persons program, the International Assn. of Applied Psychology, the International Association for Children with Learning Disabilities, the International Council of Psychologists, the International Assn. for Cross Cultural Psychology, and other groups, to explore methods of cooperation and to encourage more attention to international school psychology in the publications and on the convention programs of such groups.

2. Plans for a European colloquium on International School Psychology, hopefully for the summer of 1974. Catterall would be in Europe in August 1973 to explore possibilities.

3. Specifically, develop programs for the APA convention in New Orleans in 1974 and Chicago 1975; NASP in Las Vegas 1974 and Atlanta, Ga, 1975; International Congress on Applied Psychology, Kingston, Canada, August 1974, and the Interamerican Society of Psychology, Bogota, Colombia, Dec. 1974.

Finances. "Minimal" first year contributions from the two parent organizations were reported (amounts unspecified), with hopes for more substantial future contributions. Contacts with foundations and other sources of funds would be explored. Meanwhile individual voluntary

contributions of $5 and up were requested. (Later issues continued to ask for individual contributions, sometimes of $2 or $4, never more than $5.)

Editor. Frances Mullen was listed as editor of Vol. I, No. 1, and continued to be so listed through 1975, though Catterall tended to specify the exact contents, space arrangement of articles, et al.

Early tours, abortive and realized. In 1973 in the name of ISPC, I worked hard but eventually fruitlessly to develop a tour for school psychologists to the Peoples Republic of China, not then open to tourism. Personal contacts plus correspondence with Chinese authorities, American psychologists and U.S. governmental and professional committees on China were to no avail. Twenty U.S. psychologists had expressed their intent to join the proposed tour, even though details as to cost and approval were lacking. A formal application was submitted to the Chinese Embassy in Ottawa, Canada, there being no Chinese embassy in the U.S. at that time--but the closed door did not open. Not until 1979 did ISPC send a study tour to the Peoples Republic of China.

An ISPC tour to South America over the Christmas season 1974, however, was successful. It provided for attendance at the Interamerican Congress on Psychology in Bogota, Colombia, where the committee presented a symposium on international school psychology. Stops in Lima and Rio de Janeiro provided sessions with local psychologists, schools, universities and agencies, as well as tourism. Led by Mullen and Catterall, the tour was enjoyed by an outstanding group of U.S. psychologists with international interests.

The ISPC symposia in Bogota on the theme "School Psychology around the World" was chaired by Ines Schmidt of Bogota. Speakers included Jack Birch, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, Gerardo Suarez, Bogota, Colombia; Frances Mullen, Chicago, Illinois, and Calvin Catterall, Ohio, who aroused enthusiasm for a potential international colloquium on school psychology, probably to be held in Europe in 1974 or 1975.

Growth of ISPC. The spreading interest in ISPC is attested to by the expansion of the newsletter's mailing list. Between April 1973 and June 1974 it grew from 200 to 350, of whom 152 were outside the U.S. By January 1975, following the announcement of the coming Munich Colloquium, it had jumped to 725, of whom 250 were outside the U.S.

APA in New Orleans, September 1974. In the midst of somewhat frantic preparations for the Munich Colloquium, ISPC found time to help organize three sessions on international school psychology at the APA convention in New Orleans: an open committee meeting, a symposium sponsored by Div. 16 on "What School Psychology in the USA can Learn from Other Countries," and one sponsored by Div. 5 and ICP on "Use of Diagnostic Instruments with Children and Youth of Widely Varied Cultural Backgrounds."

The First International Colloquium. The idea of an international colloquium on school psychology to be held in Europe was on the minds of the co-chairs from the earliest days of the joint committee. The first issue of World Go Round (June, 1973) reported that an "ambitious plan for a European Colloquium on international school psychology was under discussion." The second issue reported that "a possible colloquium on international school psychology, projected now for the summer of 1975

in the Netherlands, is the hottest item for planning and action." The third issue, Feb. 1974, reported that plans were proceeding thoughtfully but slowly for a 1975 Colloquium somewhere in Europe; that the Executive Boards of both NASP and Div. 16 had officially agreed to sponsor such a meeting; and that current committee planning focused on exploring the interest, receptivity, and realistic likelihood of cooperation of enough European colleagues to make a Colloquium feasible.

Later in 1974 Catterall and I met again at O'Hare Airport and decided that the time had come to jump off into the unknown. My personal travel agent in Chicago had recently retired and sold his business to a new man with a background in the wholesale travel business, i.e. in promoting organized tours. We called Heinz Rufer, went to his office, and that day engaged his services. Rufer persuaded an air line to underwrite the expense of a colorful convention promotional brochure, and secured space for the colloquium at the elegant Vierjahrzeiten Hotel in the center of old Munich. We were committed.

By October 1974, our plans were sufficiently advanced to permit a formal announcement for July 24-26 in Munich, Germany, in a letter to all non-USA associates of the committee, asking their cooperation in publicity and planning.

The November 1974 issue of WGR announced the plans to the entire mailing list. The theme would be "School Psychology in Changing Societies." An informal format would promote optimal free discussion with minimal formal presentations. For those wanting study-oriented sessions, workshops on specific techniques and new developments would be available for a fee, two days preceding the Colloquium.

Catterall was listed as the Convention Convener, with a Planning Committee that included:

Mrs. Jeanne M. Currie, Hon. Sec., Association of Educational Psychologists of England

Dr. Edith Klasen, Klinische Psychologie, Munich

Mr. Anders Poulsen, Hon. President, Danish Assn. of School Psychologists

Dr. Phillip Williams, Professor, The Open University, Milton Keynes, England

Dr. Frances Mullen, ISPC Co-Chairperson, California

Dr. Jack Birch, University of Pittsburgh

Dr. Lawrence Hartlage, Medical College of Feorgia, AUgusta, GA.

To these the Munich Program booklet added Dr. June Holmes, Directorate of the U.S. Dependent School System in Germany and Dr. Avner Ziv, Tel Aviv University, Ramat Aviv, Israel.

Travel Plans. Three travel packages related to the Colloquium were offered and successfully carried out:

1. Basic 8-day Munich package, round trip from New York

2. Russia: 21-day Seminar, with professional discussions and tourism in London, Leningrad, Moscow, Sochi on the Black Sea, Kiev, and Munich

3. North Europe: 15-day seminar: London, Copenhagen, East and West Berlin, Munich.

Details of the travel options in connection with the Colloquium needed to be fleshed out with professional hosts. I arranged for a group of London psychologists, some from the famous Tavistock clinic,

and others in administrative positions in school psychology, to meet with the three-week tour group on July 8 to present the same program to the two-week tour group a week later. Cooperation of psychologists in Berlin was more difficult to arrange. Copenhagen with our good friend Anders Poulsen on hand presented no problem. For Russia, we submitted a list of individuals and institutes we wished to visit and were assured that all would be available. On arrival we found most of those visits cancelled because the dates of our Moscow and Leningrad visits were reversed by Intourist. The dates in Moscow were cancelled because we were three days early; those in Leningrad because we were three days late. In Moscow we did get to the Institute for Defectology, a Pioneer Palace for communist youth programs (empty of participants in the summer), and a fine drama mimed with sign language by deaf actors. In Sochi, a Black Sea resort for worthy party members, and in Kiev, we were much more fortunate, with interesting interviews with physicians, psychiatrists, psychologists and teachers in rehabilitation facilities, hospitals, nursery school and child care facilities. The Russian tour which I led was enjoyed by 43 participants; the two-week tour led by Catterall attracted 28 participants.

Difficulties along the Way. We learned the hard way. Neither Catterall nor I, although experienced in individual travel, had previously organized group tours. We had to learn to accept the reluctance of many European psychologists to devote their treasured summer vacation time to professional conventions or planning sessions. Eventually we did find loyal, devoted, and cooperative helpers.

Also we didn't realize how long air mail package deliveries might take. Catterall had had the colloquium programs printed in Ohio and mailed to Munich, assuming seven days was adequate for delivery. When they did not arrive, I took the one copy Catterall had brought with him to various print shops but found none interested in a rush reproduction job. Instant printing was not as common in the U.S. then as now, and was still rarer in Munich. Fortunately, I remembered a mountain-climbing friend who was vice-president of a Munich insurance company. When I called him for advice, he said to bring the copy over, and took me and the one precious copy to the basement of his building, where in a few hours the company's print shop had produced the necessary number of program booklets, printed on two sides of each sheet, collated, folded and stapled,--gratis. Mountain climbers do believe in cooperation and help to those in trouble!

A Successful Colloquium. Participants appeared to appreciate the colloquium. Its informal structure gave everyone a chance to speak his piece and to learn from the experiences of psychologists working in very different settings. Naturally we spent an evening at the famous Munich beer hall, pounding the tables and singing along with the natives.

Reorganization. ISP obviously started as a group of American school psychologists reaching out to colleagues around the world, to learn from other countries and to help advance school psychology internationally. The change to a truly international organization was gradual, as more non-US psychologists became active leaders. With the Munich colloquium the change became official.

On the last day of that meeting, a group of ISPC leaders from many countries, including most of the members of the International Planning Committee for the Colloquium met to discuss future plans. As reported in the October 1975 issue of WGR, a five-member International Steering Committee was established, but the concensus was to keep the overall structure as informal as possible. It was agreed that the two chairpersons of the former ISP Committee should remain as members of the new Steering Committee, but that the other three members should come from three diverse parts of the world. Frances Mullen indicated that because of her heavy duties as president of the International Council of Psychologists, she would serve on the Steering Committee only one year. Anders Poulsen of Denmark and Avner Ziv of Israel were appointed, leaving the fifth spot vacant. In the fall of 1975, Odette Van Kolck of the University of Sao Paulo, Brazil was named to that position.

The Munich group also agreed that international colloquia should be held every two years. Anders Poulsen's offer to explore possibilities of a 1977 colloquium in Denmark was enthusiastically accepted.

Until Munich, the title page of World Go Round had always indicated that it was published by the "International School Psychology Committee, a joint committee of NASP and Div. 16," and so did the Preliminary Announcement of the Munich Colloquium. However the final program booklet for Munich carried the name "International School Psychology Committee" without mentioning NASP and Div. 16. Thereafter all issues of World Go Round carried the designation "International School Psychology WORLD GO ROUND", dropping the word "Committee". Not until the call for

the Fifth Colloquium for August 1982 in Stockholm was the word "Association" added to the title and the "International School Psychology Association" saw the light of day.

SHARE. A hospitality program for school psychologists traveling internationally was conceived by Frances Culbertson, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater, in the early days of the joint committee. It was named SHARE for Sharing Home and Round the World Experiences. Frances Culbertson chaired it for many years. The June 1974 issue of World Go Round, Vol. II, No. 2, described the SHARE program and listed the addresses of 52 SHARE hosts: three in Canada, one in an American Dependent School in Germany, the rest in the U.S. A coupon encouraged others to register as hosts or to express interest in exchanging homes or job opportunities.

The SHARE policy of publishing the addresses of the registered hosts was later replaced by a policy of releasing addresses of appropriate hosts directly to specific travelers. This was done to lessen the possibility of the lists falling into the hands of ineligible travelers looking only for a free bed.

In October, 1975, WGR carried reports from seven travelers who had enjoyed SHARE hospitality. In May 1976, SHARE reported that it had registered hosts in 15 countries and 24 states of the U.S.

In 1975 SHARE merged with the hospitality committee of the International Council of Psychologists, which Culbertson also chaired. This was announced to ISP members in the January 1976 issue of WGR. From then on, ICP became the major contributor to the expenses of the SHARE program, with occasional, varied donations from Div. 16, NASP and ISPC.

Later other international organizations became co-sponsors of SHARE. SHARE continues to serve members of ISPA as well as other co-sponsoring psychology groups, under the chairmanship of Janell Holle, who retired from the Los Angeles Unified School District as a supervising psychologist and completed a term as Secretary of ICP in September 1984.

FAM Resignation. As indicated above, I had said when I was appointed to the newly established steering committee for ISPC, that I would not serve more than one year. In January 1976, I shortened this to six months, and submitted to Catterall a formal letter of regisnation, which however was not published in WGR until September 1976. In it I expressed my intent to continue informally as a contributor, supporter, and publicizer of the ISPC Steering Committee's efforts, and indicated that I had just accepted an invitation from the president of Division 16 to serve as its liaison representative to ISPC. I concluded with warmest wishes to Catterall on the important work of the committee, saying "Under your leadership it will continue to render exciting and innovative contributions to international school psychology. Individual school psychologists around the world will find their professional lives enriched by the understandings that international communication can bring to them."

In the eight years since my resignation, I have watched the ups and downs of our brain child, sorrowed over Cal's health problems, and his tragic death while attending the ISPA colloquium in Orleans, France.

Today I see an International School Psychology Association, strong and independent, that will carry on Calvin Catterall's visions of service to the profession of school psychology world wide.

INTERVIEWS
WITH SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS

BY

Frances M. Culbertson
Professor of Psychology
Director, School Psychology
University of Wisconsin-Whitewater

AN INTERVIEW WITH BRAM NORWICH, LECTURER UNIVERSITY OF LONDON LONDON, ENGLAND

by Frances M. Culbertson

THE TRAINING OF AN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGIST AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON, ENGLAND

This interview with BRAM NORWICH took place in Madison, Wisconsin while Bram was visiting with his sister, a serendipitous event.

Fran: Bram, I think people here in the United States would be very interested in learning about the University of London as an institution. I wonder if you might share with us some information about that.

Bram: Surely. London University, first of all, is not based on one campus, as is, for example, the University of Wisconsin-Madison. It is located all around London. The major administrative parts and some of the colleges are in the Bloomsbury area, which is near the British Museum, for people who know London.

Fran: Yes, that is Virginia Woolf territory and many of us have explored that area. Most people know the area if they are Woolf fans.

Bram: In terms of the sort of organization as an institution, London University consists of a series of colleges and schools and institutes. And I think that distinction is quite important. I am not really sure of a lot of the administrative details that make the distinctions. But in terms of how it appears at face value, the Colleges tend to be postgraduate and undergraduate and cover a range of courses, say in the Humanities or Sciences. Examples of the Colleges are University College which was one of the oldest colleges, Bedford College, King's College, and so on. The Schools are also postgraduate and undergraduate but tend to have a focus on a particular set of subjects, academic disciplines. Probably the best known to Americans is the London School of Economics, which covers the Social Sciences, Political Sciences, Sociology, Psychology, and foundation subjects in those areas. And the Institutes are postgraduate institutions, such as the Institute of Psychiatry, the Institute of Education, the Institute of American Studies, the Institute of Child Health; where people do postgraduate training, usually of a professional type. At the Institute of Psychiatry, psychiatrists will be trained. Psychologists will be trained at the Institute of Education. Teachers, and various people who work in education-type services, will do higher degrees at the Institute of Education. But these Institutes also have a

research component. For example, at the Institute of Education, where I am based, we have foundation-subject departments so that we have a Department of Philosophy, a Department of Psychology, a Department of Sociology, a Department of Computing and Educational Statistics, in addition to all the curriculum-based subject departments. So I think that broadly covers the range of units at London University. I could not quote a figure for how many students there are. I know that at the Institute of Education, there are a lot of part-time and full-time students doing courses ranging from the initial training in teacher education to those who already have a degree in some other subject like, say in English, who might become English teachers. There is a predominance training of high school teachers, though there are increasing numbers of teachers being trained at the primary level. Then at the higher levels, there are diploma courses, which are advanced courses for teachers leading on to Master's Degree courses. These could be either in curriculum studies or in one of the foundation disciplines, even into Masters' Degrees in Sociology, Psychology, Philosophy, Statistics and so on; and leading up to what we call Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.).

Fran: Let me ask you, assuming that I was someone from the United States, who was interested in obtaining an Educational Psychology degree or a School Psychology degree at the University of London, first at the Master's level and then at the Doctoral level; what would my requirements be and what program would I follow? How would my education go and how would it unfold?

Bram: The various avenues leading to the training to becoming an Educational Psychologist, equivalent to your School Psychologist, I think increasingly now, is the route probably through an initial undergraduate degree in Psychology, though this is not the only route. I think traditionally a lot of people have come through having an education qualification like a Bachelor of Education or the equivalent. There would be the requirement of having the equivalent of a degree in Psychology. That can be done either by doing Psychology or by doing a Bachelor of Education with a substantial psychology component, and topping off the difference by doing qualifying exams. There would also be a requirement of being a trained and experienced teacher which implies at least three years of experience. It would be one year for training, because one would be a graduate in Psychology and/or in another subject possibly, and then two years of teaching experience. And then on the basis of these two components, one could then apply for a training course.

Fran: May I interrupt a minute here, Bram? As you have described it, it is my understanding then, that you generally have more people, or almost everyone coming into your program, as a teacher with a heavy Psychology background.

Bram: Not necessarily.

Fran: How do the Psychology people get their teaching?

Bram: By going into teaching.

Fran: How do they get the Teacher's Certificate?

Bram: By getting training as a teacher. After graduating in Psychology, they then take their training in education. This program would take one year to get what we call a PGC which is a Postgraduate Certificate in Education. They would then be either trained to teach at the high school level or the primary level.

Fran: And what would you teach if you had a Psychology undergraduate degree?

Bram: You could teach at the primary level and at the high school level if you also had a degree, say, in English. Or, if you had some component of a degree, you might be able to offer a subject, say Mathematics.

Fran: I gather then that coming into your program are fairly mature people.

Bram: Yes, the minimum age would be 26 or 27. I think this is so, but I could not really back this up with figures. I feel that there are a large number of people who come in from psychology rather than from Education. That is the way I came in. I came in as a Psychologist wanting an applied field. And I certainly feel that the people with whom I trained, when I did my training at the Institute of Education, were, with the exception of one person, all in that position. We were all Psychologists initially. We had gone into an applied field. And I think this partly relates back to the tradition that Educational Psychologists used to be trained with Clinical Psychologists. People got dual training and they then chose their specialty areas.

Fran: Did you wish to become a Clinical Psychologist at one time?

Bram: I had wanted to do some sort of clinical applied type of work--in my own sort of personal circumstances--it happened that I wanted a job. At that particular time I had been doing a research degree. I thought well, I will go into teaching, and having gone into teaching I thought well, this is one way of pursuing it and carrying on.

Fran: So when you took your teaching degree, in what area was it that you got your Teaching Certificate?

Bram: In my particular case I did not do--in a sense I am like Tony Cline--I did not do a teaching certificate. There was a system in England that if your degree, as my degree was, was prior to 1973, you could, by doing an extended probationary teaching under supervision for two years rather than one year as was usual, get the equivalent of a Certificate.

Fran: And would that at the time count as two years of practical experience?

Bram: No, it would not. So I needed to do more in addition to that. I needed to do four years as a minimum. But I think that what had happened was that in England, up until recently, there was a lot of difficulty in recruiting teachers. Therefore anyone who was a graduate was really sought after very greatly. Nowadays this is not the situation at all. Jobs are very difficult to get. And I think generally there is a lot more professionalism in teaching education and teacher training.

Fran: So how are the students coming in now?

Bram: I think now, and certainly even when I was training, most of them have done their Postgraduate Certificate in Education. So one has basically the two components; one has both training and experience in education, and an academic background in psychology. And then one goes on and applies for a one or two-year course. Now some courses in the country are one year and some courses are 18 months and others are two years.

Fran: Is there no standard certification procedure?

Bram: There is a certification procedure of a type but it is not standard in the sense that it requires a certain number of years. Certification comes through the British Psychological Society, the equivalent of your APA. The BPS goes around and validates courses. They look at the content of the courses. They look at the individual components of the courses. They look at the overall course plans. They look at the practical components. They see whether it satisfies the requirements such that the BPS can say this is an acceptable course to be considered as a training for the profession.

Fran: And who makes up the certifying officers for the BPS?

Bram: These would be people selected by the BPS, by the Professional Board. They would be well known psychologists, who are active in the field.

Fran: So then, if the program is approved and you graduate from that program, then you are an approved psychologist. Is that correct?

Bram: Yes. But this is all done informally. It is done between the professional body and the universities that provide the courses. And the educational authorities that then employ the psychologists, subsequently to the training, are not required to take on someone with these qualifications. It just so happens that these are the rules that they operate by. In the past they have taken on people without such qualifications.

Fran: I was just about to inquire whether they in fact made that a mandatory condition of hiring, but I gather not.

Bram: Not in the past. But what has happened now is that there has been a large expansion in psychological services over the last 15 years. A lot of people who went into the services with, say, a degree in Psychology and a bit of teaching practice without the postgraduate degree, would then go back and do the postgraduate degree after possibly 5 or 6 years, while working as an Educational Psychologist. I think one of the things I have not said is that the courses are at the Master's level. They are not Doctoral programs and there are no Doctoral programs. In fact, there are no Doctoral programs in Educational Psychology, as professional training courses. Nor in Clinical Psychology are there Doctoral programs. There is only one place where you can convert your Master's professional training degree into a doctorate. It is by doing extra years, but it is not a program. It is just a way of saying that the dissertation you do can then be extended and then resubmitted as a doctoral degree.

Fran: And where is that place?

Bram: Birmingham University I think.

Fran: That was the University where Klaus Wedell was teaching?

Bran: Yes. And that is in the Clinical section, not in the Educational Psychology section,where one can obtain the Ph.D. In Educational Psychology, to be an Educational Psychologist and have a Doctorate degree, one would have to be an academic type. There are not the type of Doctorate programs that you have here. Doctoral programs are research programs throughout, under the supervision of a tutor.

Fran: What would be a fairly typical description of a Ph.D. in Educational Psychology? Let us take Dr. Wedell as an example.

Bram: I am not quite sure what his area would be. I think his area had to do with cerebral palsy and perceptual motor control. However, first of all, I think that the distinction, the very notion, of Educational Psychology as a Ph.D. degree,is possibly questionable in this academic sphere. One might talk about a Ph.D. in Child Psychology or Child Development, with a focus on educational issues.

Fran: I see. So what is the most likely area of study for people with doctorates?

Bram: Well, I think that varies. There are a lot of areas of research. Research interests might be in mother-infant relationships. The person would receive a Ph.D. in Psychology and it would not have the title Educational Psychology. It would come under the Faculty of Science. We would say it would be in the Faculty of Science in London University. One would not really go into whether it was Educational Psychology or Clinical Psychology or Child Development. These are labels that we put on to try to focus on the areas. But people do Ph.D.s in the area of educational achievement, motivational factors that are involved in educational achievement, or whatever research project that is chosen.

Fran: Now let's go back, if we could, to entering as a student in the Educational Psychology program. Will programs vary?

Bram: The programs could vary considerably. They could vary both in the length of time, in the amount of practical work you did on the orientation, the balance of the course, the general theoretical framework, etc.

Fran: Let us take the one that you think appears to be the most valuable. Then maybe, if we have time, we could pick another one as a contrast.

Bram: I think maybe I should talk from my experience because that would be best. Partly because I have been through one course, and I know that course. I know about other courses through second hand reports and I could talk a bit about that. In the London area, there is the university college course and the Institute of Education Child Development Department course and the Child Guidance Training Center which also runs a course. The Northeast London Polytechnic (polytechnics are a different system but are like a university; they offer degrees, and so on), they run a course. Those are the sorts of courses that are on offer. They probably have a certain similarity with each other and one could sort of differentiate them from courses that were run, for example, at the University of Exeter, which is in the County of Devon in the southwest tip of England. At the University of Birmingham, the sort of training that one would get there is quite different in framework, training, and role expectations for trainees who are learning about their job. So, going back to the Institute of Education, the training there involves a practical and an academic side. The academic side is to follow a Master's course, usually, but not exclusively, but it can be either a Master's course in Educational Psychology or a Master's course in Child Development. There is a large overlap in those two Master's courses.

Fran: Well, what exactly, what courses would you take?

Bram: Let us talk about, say, Child Development. Let us say you entered the first semester. You would do a series of lectures and seminars on the Child in Society which would be looking at the child in school, social-psychological aspects of the child in school, the child in the neighborhood, the child in the home, that type of social-psychological aspects of developmental psychology with a social perspective. You would do a course on Language and Perceptual Development. You would do a course on Intellectual Development, the Piaget type of psychology. You would do a course on Educational Services and Psychological Factors in relation to Education, Moral Development, aspects of Special Needs, Learning Difficulties, Emotional and Behavioral Difficulties. There would be a heavy component on research methodology and statistics, statistical methods and techniques, research methods and child observation methods, various types of assessment techniques and measures.

Those would be separately related courses with the emphasis very much on research questions rather than professional work. The emphasis would be on types of data gathering, observation methods, interview methods, self-report type measures, questionnaires, and so on, rather than asking particular questions.

Fran: So you are learning about the techniques of research.

Bram: Right. And let me just say that in the particular course I am talking about, the reason for this emphasis is that many people who do that course are not training to be professional Educational Psychologists. Some of these people are trained to receive a degree in Child Development with a view to doing further research, possibly at the doctoral level or just learning about child development for their own sake. So that covers that aspect. In addition, there would be many seminar series that would look into theoretical issues in child development, different models of development, theoretical models looking into the philosophy of science that underlies developmental theories.

Fran: About how many hours a week of classes would you attend?

Bram: That is a difficult question. I cannot remember. One would be programmed, literally, from Monday to Friday, more or less morning and afternoon, doing something, and if one was not at a seminar or lecture, one would be doing an observation study or whatever. It is a very intensive course, a very demanding course. I would say certainly, from the academic side, it is of a very high standard. In addition, in terms of components, an important component is one's research project which is a research degree in which one receives training in doing a miniresearch project and applying what one has learned. So one would be engaged in deciding, with a supervisor, a research question and then actually trying to set up methods of answering that question, and submitting a 10-15,000-word dissertation on that question. The title of my dissertation was, because this is my area of interest, "An Interview Method of Assessing a Child's Reading Self-Concepts." That involved a study in what you would call a learning disability program or what we would call a remedial department within a high school where I compared a group of 20 retarded readers with a group of 20 readers who were advanced for their age and tried out a particular sort of interview schedule that I had devised on various theoretical grounds.

Fran: That sounds very interesting.

Bram: For a practical side, the practical side of this course sort of runs simultaneously with the academic side. It involves placements in addition to seminars. This would involve either people from within the Institute talking about issues in learning difficulties, emotional difficulties, or running various projects on, say, behavioral problems in class; or calling in outside speakers to run the workshops, etc. Placement would be done in a county just bordering on London where people would go along, initially sort of go along, working in an

apprenticeship type basis with the psychologists and increasingly taking on work until ultimately, by the end of the course, they are working almost independently as psychologists in the tradition of that county, which is not necessarily the tradition of other counties. In my particular case it was the County of Essex which is east of London which is a very large county. It had a large psychological service, possibly 25 members; not as large as the inner London one, but probably after inner London the second largest. The practical work was supervised partly in the locality and partly in the Institute. Again it was very much within the tradition of your supervisor. In terms of the requirements, there were requirements that students experience a range of ages, that is, infant, preschool, 5-7 years, junior level which is 8-11 years, and then secondary transfer from high school which is 11-15 years. So one would need to cover children in all of those age groups and also cover children in the range of special needs. One would want to have an experience with a child who had, say, hearing difficulty at, say, under 11; and below 11 years old similarly with visual difficulties, similarly with learning difficulties, with emotional behavior problems, and so on. So this sort of matrix was made up of the types of cases and experiences one was meant to come across. But given the very limited amount of time, relatively, to actually work with these cases, in many cases one would not be able to really get very involved with them. In addition, one was also expected to do at least two and possibly more intensive case studies. That would mean working with a child or some referred problem over a period of time which could be several months, and then be involved in the write-up. In fact, all of this practical work would be written up in the form of a notebook that would then be examined. To pass the final assessment, one would need to pass both the academic side and the practical side. In fact, in my year one person passed the academic side but failed to pass the practical side and was not accredited with the qualification. So that gives you an idea of what is expected.

Fran: Yes, that is really very, very good. I am getting the feel for both the academic and the practical side. Now in that practical setting, because I am a university faculty, I am interested in the supervision you received. For example, did your university faculty person supervise you while you were in the field as well as the person who was the School Psychologist out in the field working with you?

Bram: Yes, in theory, there would be a field tutor. That is his title. He would be university-based but also based in the authority. He would go around and talk with the student and the local supervisor who had day-to-day management of the supervision as opposed to overall control. That was the basis of my work. Supervision is variable, obviously, in terms of who is your supervisor. So one might find that one has a supervisor who sort of says "get on with your work but if you've got problems come to me" or you might have a supervisor who holds back and says "you've got to satisfy me with the following skills before I let you loose on anybody."

Fran: Given that, what sort of skills, when you enter your supervisory year, are you expected to have? And by the time you have finished your supervisory year, what would you say your skills are?

Bram: I think this is a very difficult question to answer for many reasons. Firstly, I think that the courses are undergoing a lot of change. This change is in response to sort of changing ideas about what the role of the Educational Psychologist is to be in the future.

Fran: Maybe you could discuss that a little. In what way is it shifting?

Bram: I would say when I trained, which was not that long ago but still several years ago--and again I think you might remember that we are talking about the London area--the more traditional, psychometric type models (intelligence testing, personality testing), were seen as the core. I think that was certainly the way it was put over to us; that there is a core to the role of the psychologist, and then there were peripheral roles. The core was the individual assessment of a child in a particular kind of way. I think that particular kind of way was in the use of an intelligence test--like the Wechsler tests or the McCarthy tests which are American tests. We are very much American based in our use of tests. It is only recently that we now have what is called the British Ability Scales. So I think that sort of core of individual assessment according to the traditional psychometric model very much implemented the sort of skills that people were expected to have when they initially went on their placement. There was a lot of prior preparation within the Institute to make certain that people knew the Wechsler schedule, and could do it perfectly. People were video taped doing the tests so that they could then watch themselves doing it. A lot of effort and a lot of importance was attached to that. Increasingly this sort of approach has been called into question. I think at the Institute--though I am not directly involved in this training--I understand that that is still done but this rationale is not so emphasized as it used to be. In other training courses, possibly say in Exeter or Birmingham, I think the orientation is much more with systems and behavioral and problem-solving models. I would sort of see it in those terms. And I think that would characterize the sort of supervision that they would have and the sort of expectations in the way that they were trained in their placement.

Fran: Are they using the British Ability very frequently now?

Bram: There is a long story about the British Ability Scales which I am not sure you would want to hear, or listen to. I would say the British Ability Scales have not really taken off as scheduled. There are a variety of reasons for that. It has partly to do with the fact that the British Ability Scales has taken a long time to actually be produced. Initially it was going to be a British Intelligence Scale. They changed the name to the British Ability Scales, and that represented a fundamental change in the philosophy of assessment which I think is an important change. I think a lot of people are very partial to the Wechsler Scales despite the fact that they

have not been standardized on the British population. I do not know what opinion you would have on that. And when the British Ability Scales finally came out, they still were in really an experimental form. A lot of the technical data about validity or reliability has not been published. One has to trust the accuracy of the scale. There have not been parallel studies looking at other samples. It has been standardized on a British sample. It has been standardized in a very systematic way from what one gathers from reading and attending seminars.

Fran: How does it relate to the Wechsler Scales? How does it correlate?

Bram: How does it correlate? I do not think that anyone yet has correlations. I think the change from intelligence scales to ability scales represents a move away from the G factor theory of intelligence, of which personally I am very much in favor. It is very much more based on the idea of primary mental abilities focusing on specific performances in specific areas. It has a sort of model of process input-output, not unlike the ITPA, the Illinois test. It has 20 odd scales, each of which covers cells in a grid. It is a 3-dimensional grid. There are still gaps in this grid and the idea is possibly to have these gaps filled in at a later time.

Fran: So is it somewhat like a Guilford model?

Bram: No, like the Guilford in the sense that the Guilford is much more based on a theoretical model, but I think that the British Ability Scales are more a hodge-podge of Piagetian ideas. There is a scale that tests for motivation. There is a scale on social reasoning which is developmental. There is a fluency test which is a sort of divergency type test. There are all the traditional Wechsler, Stanford-Binet type of memory, variable concepts, matrices, and so on. But what I think is interesting about it is that it blurs the distinction between ability and achievement tests which I think is a thoroughly good thing to do. It introduces, for example, which I think is very interesting, a broad categorization of types of tests. It has reasoning tests. Then you have similarities type tests which are different from the Wechsler similarities test. You have memory-type tests and you have what is called the acquisition and retrieval of knowledge. And, within that you have a basic arithmetic scale, an early arithmetic scale. You have a word-reading scale and you have a word-definition scale which I think is very interesting. This is very similar to the Wechsler vocabulary scale. And it is interesting that they categorize that as an educational-achievement test. And I think it is quite obvious, listening to the people who constructed it and the change in the direction of their conceptualization, that they really want to break down this distinction between ability and achievement tests which, as I said, I favor. It has not really taken off, but I think partly for technical reasons, partly for promotion and marketing reasons. But more important, I think there is a deep underlying attachment to the notion of a general ability of intelligence. And the idea

that, if you are doing an assessment of a child, you really want to know what his/her IQ is. And I think it is interesting that initially--and this is another sort of point in passing--that initially, when the first battery came out, the office advised people not to average out subscores. If people wanted to use, say 4 or 5 scales, and get a general estimate of ability, they gave ways in which you could do this. They reminded people and said "We advise you not to average out and quote a general estimate of ability if there is significant scatter." However, the pressure on these people has been such that they have succumbed to the market pressure to actually divide up and select from their range of 20 scales, 5 or 6 verbal-type scales, and 5 or 6 performance-type scales, so that one obtains an IQ. And this is a way, I think, that they might increase their sales revenue. I think it shows, in a way, that they want to be all things to all people, and I think this is another problem.

Fran: That is very interesting because we are once again returning to that model of school psychology we discussed earlier. In this model you were saying that you felt a shifting from a psychometric model to a more systems or behavioral model. And yet, I have the sense that as you shift to the behavioral-systems model, still within that model, there is always that very strong component of the psychometric. I don't know if that ever will disappear.

Bram: In the sort of course that I am talking about, that would be seen as peripheral as opposed to the core element. Though possibly now, they would not see it so much as peripheral core but a center of overlapping major contributions.

Fran: I guess we could call it major skills or role concepts or whatever one might talk about, but it has broadened the role of the School Psychologist by virtue of going into those areas, has it not?

Bram: Certainly.

Fran: Now, if you were to plan the ideal training role of the School Psychologist, what might it be?

Bram: It might take me another hour! I think there are lots of very fundamental issues that one needs to sort of dredge up. I think it has to do with what the role of psychology is in education and that includes special education and ordinary education. And let me say this initially, I think that psychology is obviously a foundation subject to education, a very key subject to education. I think that one really needs to go back to that and ask questions related to that in order to answer the question of what the role should be. I think that one has got to look at what it is that the psychologist is expected to do by the employing authorities. This is partly a function of what sort of organizational needs there are, needs at the sort of level of administration; but also what individual needs there are. And also that is conditioned by the sorts of demands psychologists make on the authorities in terms

of what they say; "this is what we can offer—this is what we cannot offer—this is what we think our contribution can be." It is a two-way thing. It is not a question of always fitting in with what the employing authorities say. One sells one's goods and one sells them under certain conditions.

Fran: One becomes an advocate for self as well as the system.

Bram: Right. I think that that is one aspect. And I think that the whole training has to be governed by what one sees as the unique contribution of the educational or school psychologist in the assessment of the child. If what you mean by an individual assessment of a child is to make very general statements about a child, which are context-free in the sense that they do not relate to a particular set of aims and objectives in a particular setting, and that that is what your role is, then I think you will train people in that particular way. If you believe that one can reliably and validly make such general context characterizations about a child, and that they contain certain predictive factors; that there is a certain predictive confidence that one can have in the descriptions generated; then I think that one will tend to go along with the more traditional view. If one takes a more behavioral or interactive view, where one does not see general characteristics, even in the form of traits or mental abilities, as being the important factors in determining learning of an emotional or of a cognitive type; but sees it in terms more of an interaction between the input from the environment and what the child brings to the learning environment; then I think one's assessments will be very different. I think one would not, given limits of time and resources, go in for the sort of traditional psychometric types of testing in this approach.

Fran: Give us an example of that interactive process as something that you might do. Let us have an example of that.

Bram: The sort of example would be if a child were referred for a reading problem, was very distractable in class, and so on, in a traditional sort of way, I think in the way which a lot of people have been trained; the psychologist would do an intelligence test and possibly do various other sorts of tests, using the Bender-Gestalt Visual-Motor Test and some reading tests and so on and make very general characterizations about the child. That report would then be handed to the teacher. Assuming no special service placement was required, but the teacher is referring, then the teacher would have to use these general characterizations, and in some way hope that that would help. Now in some situations, that might be helpful in that it might alter the perspective of the teacher; and that might indirectly affect the way the teacher then programs for the child. But in a more interactive way, I think, the psychologist would initially go in and try and define the problem more. And I think that follows from the idea that the specifics of the problem are important whereas in the more psychometric approach one is into

generalities and therefore one is not interested in the context or the definition of the context. One is interested in what one attributes as being within the child and has to do with within-child factors. One would be interested in interaction factors of the child. One would be interested in what the child had in terms of learning style, verbal reasoning abilities or whatever; but I think that the focus would be in terms of what is the problem. And I think assessment would be a very different endeavor. And training of psychologists in that mode would be a very different endeavor. I mean that is the sort of thing that I mean. I mean in terms of what an ideal course would be, I would not say that there is any one ideal. I would say that it would be ideal if we had authorities who were committed to certain principles in educational psychology, and who would carry through consistently so that we would have a variety of theories that were being utilized. And therefore, you could have a variety of ways in which psychologists operated. Say that people who had a more within-child type of model would operate that way and one could see it operating in that way and one could see the way the special services were operating. However, if one had an authority that had a more consistently interactionist or very behavioral type model, one would see these special services and the assessments and everything going along in that mode. That is what I would see as an ideal setting so I do not think that training can be dissociated from the special services because training has to do with assessment and intervention and ultimately that depends on the sort of model within which you are working. So that is a very difficult answer to your question, I don't know if I have answered your question.

Fran: Well, I think it is a question that can not be answered. As you say, it is going to depend on the authorities. And then, it also depends on the persons who are coming in, who, in one way or another, want to protect the things that they have learned. They do not want to change really radically—usually they do not, although sometimes they may. Is there any last thing you would like to say, Bram?

Bram: I will tell you what my own special preference is. I mean, I personally—and this has sort of taken me a number of years to come around to believing, I know it is not a generally accepted view—I feel that psychologists ought to be adopting a very radical, educational role in the educational service and seeing their role as that. And the training of psychologists should be geared to seeing their role as in-service trainers or teachers, but not exclusively. I think the psychologists ought to be working with individual children. I also think, however, that psychologists need to be aware of their inter-professional relations. I think that is the main problem, or one of the main problems that I see in the London area. It is certainly an important issue in England and I am sure it is here also. I think that is something that I think people ought to consider. I think they ought to consider it also in terms of whether they see themselves as satisfying mental health needs or

educational needs. And I put it like that because educational philosophers argue about whether mental health is an educational need or not. But I think that is a very important issue that bears on practical, professional work.

Fran: It certainly does.

Bram: And, I think that one needs to be clear about these things, even if one does not argue that is the right way, so at least one can say, well if it is not that, it is this; so at least one can make the distinction. Because if one were to say "I am deeply committed to the concept of developing social skills in children," you are more into a mental health model from some people's point of view. But actually, from an educational point of view, if you make it a part of a curriculum, it would be an educational view, having a mental health component. In essence social skills does overlap into the mental health area. So I think I feel, that psychologists need to be very aware of not only the other professions they are involved with, but the whole sort of philosophical issues that are involved in what they are trying to do. That has very much to do with educational values and mental health values. I think there is no way that one can dissociate the training of psychologists from them. And I think that there ought to be that type of component in the training of psychologists.

Fran: Well, Bram, we have run out of time. I hope we meet again at some later time and we can once again discuss various aspects of school psychology.

Bram: It will be a pleasure.

AN INTERVIEW WITH TONY CLINE, PRINCIPAL EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGIST FROM LONDON, ENGLAND

by Frances M. Culbertson

THE PRACTICE OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN LONDON, ENGLAND

This interview with Tony Cline, Principal Educational Psychologist, of the Inner London Educational Authority, England, took place at the University of Edinburgh, Scotland during the International Association of Applied Psychology Meetings, 1982. (Tony will describe a bit about himself, about the practice of School Psychology, about the training of a school psychologist, and whatever else he would care to discuss.)

Fran: So, Tony it is all yours!

Tony: First of all, a little bit to tell you who I am and what I do. I am an Educational Psychologist, which in English terms means that I am a person with a degree in Psychology who has also trained as a teacher. I ought to admit perhaps that I did not train as a teacher, but then there are exceptions to every rule. However, I did do the other thing, which was that I taught in State schools, that is what you call the public schools. Both, at the primary level, I taught 8-to-10-year-olds for a couple of years, and at the secondary level, I taught youngsters between 11 and 18 years of age for a few years. My teaching at primary school was as a general class teacher. In the secondary school, what you need to know is that I happened to have had an English degree--a degree in English Literature and Language first. I had a degree in English Literature so I started by teaching English. I really got into teaching by chance. I needed a job and, you know, if you have a degree in English Literature, there is only one thing you are fit for, and that is teaching it to other people. So I started by teaching English in an emergency way. I got a job half way through the school year. I had to teach Latin and Religious Studies, which came rather oddly from a Jewish person, in a Church of England school, but I survived. This was in a public school. All my teaching was in schools run by local educational authorities. During the time I was working in secondary schools, which was the first teaching I did, I became interested in remedial teaching, and in working with less able children. And really that is how I got into Psychology; because I then took Psychology, as it is possible to do in London, as an evening degree. I obtained the equivalent of an undergraduate degree in Psychology. I then came to the end of my teaching time and took a 1-year, full-time course, which was a Master's Degree course in Educational Psychology. This would be the equivalent of your School Psychology training I suppose. I was born and brought up in London. My wife comes from London. We have always lived in the London area. My teaching was in London, too; so obtaining my degree here was very logical.

Fran: Could I just have you pick up, Tony, on the courses you took for your degree. What would have been the courses for your Educational Psychology Degree?

Tony: This is a one-year, full-time course with a very large practical component. I spent one day a week working in the schools as a psychologist, working regularly with certain children. I also did some clinical placements in a hospital department where I was working with other psychologists, with psychiatrists, and in a local authority psychological-service setting.

Fran: Was that part of what would be seen as your practicum, as part of the Educational Psychology program?

Tony: Yes. One was supervised for that work and the quality was recorded. The assessment then was rather more informal than it is now.

Fran: About how many hours would you say did you have to put in to that practicum experience?

Tony: In one academic year, the equivalent of two days a week for six or seven months and five days a week for one month. I do not think in terms of hours, I am sorry, so you will have to do the conversion. Now that was the practical element. Academic teaching was in small group seminar forms, most of the time, with a group of 10 of us. Sometimes we combined with other course groups, but very rarely. Course units--now this is 12 years ago, so I am trying to remember.

Fran: I am not so interested in the units as the courses you had taken, the ones you see as truly relevant to your School Psychology training.

Tony: I think the most important were Personality Assessment and Psychometric Assessment. Those courses covered, with much detail, theory as well as practical application of the actual tests. The course which was at University College-London where, incidentally, I later taught before I took my present job, is a course which does not put over a particular approach to the practice of psychology. It is not behaviorist and it is not psychodynamic. To call it eclectic would be, I think, to overrate the degree to which it introduced students to different approaches in detail and to underrate what has been its key features. The course aims were to introduce students, both in practical and in theoretical terms, to fundamental principles, and into a habit of criticism which will enable them to develop their own skills and their own strategies on the job in different settings. I continue to believe that all training, which is worth anything, is training of that kind. Other very important elements, as I think back now, included academic subject matter involving a more detailed review of factors of child development, and themes of child development, particularly emotional and social development. It is my impression that many trained School Psychologists could benefit considerably from having a more detailed knowledge, than they do, of the developmental processes in cognition and in emotion.

Fran: I guess because our time is short I am going to ask you, if you will, to move on to a description of your program in London, what the present model is, and then the model that you would like to see yourself working toward developing as a school psychologist.

Tony: You need to know that my present job is as the Principal Educational Psychologist acting less, I think, as leader than as Chairman. I am representative to the administration of a team of about 77 psychologists, working in schools, clinics, and social services departments or social welfare departments, in the Inner-London area (Inner-London consists of 12 districts or boroughs with a school population of about 360,000 children, aged up to 18).

Fran: With how young a child is this district involved in terms of services to children?

Tony: The Educational Psychologists in the Service are very rarely dealing with children under the age of 2. We are increasingly dealing with children at risk, and handicapped children aged two plus, for two reasons. First of all, the school system itself has been making more provision for children aged 2 to 5 (5 is the compulsory age of education in this country). It is making more and more provision for children aged 2 to 5 generally, and in particular, for those children who have special educational needs. The Educational Psychologists are therefore involved in assessing the needs of such children and helping to give advice on the provisions to be made for them, and also in in-service work and consultation with their teachers. A second reason is that there has been an increasing development in the last 5-10 years of multi-disciplinary teams working with the handicapped, known very often but not always as District Handicap Teams. These teams are sometimes in a medical setting, but more often in a community setting. These teams have a very great need for educational advice. Advice is frequently provided by an Educational Psychologist who also provides psychological contributions to the work of the team. So there are two reasons for our developing work with children from 2-5 years of age.

Fran: Who might be on that team, Tony?

Tony: Let me tell you about one in the London borough of Lamberth. The community health facility in that area, which is run by a District health authority separate from the educational authority, combined both with the Social Services Department and the educational authority, and with some help from government funding, to set up a team which is based geographically in a health facility but services all three authorities. It provides many services. Any professional or parent of a child up to the age of 5 can ask for advice from this team in what is known as the Mary Sheridan Center. Mary Sheridan was a famous British pediatrician who developed work with young handicapped children. The Mary Sheridan Center has in it, play observation facilities, day teaching facilities, and speech

therapy facilities. All of these facilities are used so there are teachers and community doctors, pediatricians, speech therapists, and occupational therapists. An educational psychologist will also be making a contribution. That psychologist will also be working in local schools with older children. There is also the possibility of physiotherapists but we have economic problems and we are arguing about the physiotherapist at the moment.

Fran: May we move on now, because time is short, into those other areas with the older children, older than 5 years of age.

Tony: London is divided, that is, Inner-London is divided into 10 Districts. These are not the same as the boroughs. Each District has a team of 6 or 7 educational psychologists who work mainly in the schools. They may be based in a School Psychological Service Office or they may be based in a Multi-Disciplinary Child Guidance Clinic, on the pattern of the traditional North American Child Guidance facilities. The Child Guidance Clinics are run by the local authority's medical department. London is unique in still having a Medical Department in the local authority. Most have been taken over by a central government. We fight to keep some control, something which may be all too familiar to you, in the running of interdisciplinary services in your country. The Educational Psychologists, whether or not they are based in a Child Guidance Clinic, will give time mainly, probably four-fifths or more of their time, to visiting a group of schools, a group of 2, 3, or 4 secondary schools with youngsters aged 11-18; 11 or 12 primary schools and 2 or 3 special schools. This Psychologist may also visit a residential special school in the county or in another part of London; or may have responsibilities for working with an observation center for delinquents, with Children's Homes, and day or residential nurseries run by the Social Services Department. As far as possible we believe in the integration of work as I described it in relation to the District Handicap Team. We believe that the psychologist who knows the schools and the range of youngsters living in an area is probably well equipped to give specialist advice within a particular area, in addition to maintaining an orientation which holds with what is going on in ordinary schools. You will be familiar with the issues of mainstreaming and integration which are very much a matter of public debate in both countries at the moment. I guess that is a complicated issue so maybe we should move on.

Fran: Why not describe what is the role model of services you employ. Let us imagine that a child was referred to you. And I guess we will have to move quickly because I know that your time is short.

Tony: Fine. I will describe some recent work I have done with a school, a school for girls, in a difficult area of London; where there had been a change of principal; and where there was much dissension amongst the staff; and where, most unfortunately, the educational psychologist for the school left; and we were not able to replace him immediately. I was working for 6 months as a local Educational Psychologist on a limited contract. I would hope, incidentally,

that my colleagues who have the advantage of working in a longer term way with a school would become more involved along lines I will describe.

A girl was referred on my second visit to the school. This was a second-year girl presenting a reluctance to attend school; isolated from per peers; defiant in a silent way with members of the staff; given to periodic outbursts of angry swearing both in the classroom and outside. The work with the girl was relatively brief and depended on conversation with her, partly with words, partly through the use of drawings, partly a sorting task with teachers of classroom events, and partly making use of a personal construct model. The main work was not with the girl whom I left saying, "Sharon, I think that you are very angry with a lot of people in school and I think I have begun to understand it, but I need to talk to some of the teachers." My contract, therefore, was less with Sharon than with the staff.

Fran: I see.

Tony: The key features as I understand them were that this girl was spending too much time in a special unit in the school which was run by a young woman teacher who found the girl herself antipathetic. The teacher was very uncertain in her management of this unit and did not understand the girl's withdrawal from her lessons. There seemed to be a need to clarify the objectives of the unit and to provide more support for the teacher in her work with the unit in general. There was also a need to insure that this girl, Sharon, had access to someone in the school who was able to give her the time and space to relax, and allow her to develop some kind of trust with someone. It needs to be said that Sharon had a number of personal and family problems. I made a conscious decision not to explore those issues at that stage nor to focus the work on dealing with them. It would be quite possible and proper for a psychologist to take the other decision and to have focussed on those issues concerning Sharon. My model of work is not an exclusive one. When I am doing local work in particular, I am always concerned for the most economic way of approaching an issue, economic in terms of time and in terms of commitment. I can make a short-term commitment to adults. It is very difficult for anyone, it seems to me, to make a short-term commitment to a worried and upset child. Whoever takes a person like Sharon on, should take her on and aim to stay there. The work, then, depended on talking at some length with Mrs. L. who was in charge of the unit, with Miss K. who was in charge of the pastoral work with the year group of which Sharon was a part. Miss K., I ought to explain, is an academic teacher who does work of this nature as part of her overall commitment. We do not separate pastoral and academic teaching in this country. And finally, I talked with the Deputy Head Teacher of the school with whom I discussed the objectives of the unit. Because of my work there, the Deputy Head Teacher of the school invited me to

return next term. There was a new Educational Psychologist and the Educational Psychologist, the teacher in charge of the unit, the Deputy Head, the pastoral staff of the school, and myself were to plan how they should use this unit in the future. The important factor in this problem was to find a way of shifting the focus of work in the unit toward one which Mrs. L. could herself manage, without implying at any stage that Mrs. L. had in some way failed. Indeed, she had not failed. She had been given an impossible job and the senior members of the staff knew that. Now what I am describing is a type of work which had focused on consultation with individuals in the school hierarchy, leading to an intervention in the way the system worked, but one which derived from an assessment of the needs of an individual pupil. Fran asked me, and I have taken a long time to get there, what is the working model that I might assume. It is a model which involves starting from the needs of individual pupils and accepting referrals in individual terms. Educational Psychologists in Inner-London do not go out saying "We are here to change your system." Educational Psychologists in London assume that teachers know their job and respect their expertise. They also assume that they—the psychologists—have something very particular to offer in terms of an understanding of how pupils develop; how pupils perceive the world around them; both their relationships with their families and the impact of those relationships on other relationships that they have with their peers and other adults.

Fran: Tony, would you work with families? For instance, would you have worked with the family of that student?

Tony: Let me tell you about the setting I worked in before I took the largely administrative job which I now have. I worked in a Child Guidance unit with psychiatric social workers and psychiatrists in Northeast London. In that setting I would become involved in conjoint family therapy, together with psychiatric social workers on the staff. I am an arrogant chap but in that context I thought of myself as the learner. I brought to conjoint family work something very particular which they valued. That was a knowledge of the school, and an on-going liaison with the child in school, and with the child's teachers. But in the context of the family therapy room, I was the second therapist, and the lead was taken by my expert social work colleagues. The family work in which educational psychologists become involved in, intensive work, is often a session a week over a period of 20 plus weeks. The family work which educational psychologists are involved in on their own, from the sort of setting from which I now work, is mainly work which focusses on educational decisions for families with handicapped children or children at risk. Family work is short-term and focussed, and aimed at helping the parents and child to think about the implications, mainly the educational implications. But, you cannot think about the educational implications without thinking about the implications of the dynamics within a family or of a child's school failure, or of

a child's handicap, or whatever else. I am opposed to ventures in treatment, either of families or individuals, from a school's base which are intrusive; in the sense that they, in the context of the school, prevent the family and the child from enjoying the privacy which I think is their right and the separateness of their personal lives from the school lives. The separateness is not real, but it is felt by every one of us. So most family work, most counseling, will take place in contexts separate from schools. I perhaps should mention that a good deal of group work is carried out by my colleagues with students in the school setting.

Fran: What would be an example of group work?

Tony: Let me take the example of some group work being done by a colleague, a woman, together with a male teacher in a school for physically handicapped boys and girls. They meet--the children are in the leaving group of the school, aged 15+. They have to come to terms over the next year with issues concerning leaving the protective environment of the school; their own developing sexuality; implications of being physically handicapped; and with the fact that both their academic and their work expectations must, in the current climate, be very limited indeed. The teacher carries out a systematic leaver's program. A part of that program is a group meeting once a fortnight, attended by the visiting psychologist and led by her, rather than the teacher, but with the teacher present. The structure of the sessions is educational. There is a labelled subject. The style is a verbal group discussion. There is a working through of interpretations to individuals, and through subsequent discussion of each session, with the teacher. The Psychologist's aim is to help the individuals in the group come to terms, through others' experiences as well as through their own, with the implications of being handicapped. Often handicapped youngsters can come to have a feeling about and an acceptance of the meaning of "handicapped" through someone else. It is manifestly daft that that girl over there really thinks she can eventually drive a bus. In addition, the Psychologist is aiming to work with the teacher. Her hope is that the teacher will herself be in the position to run such groups in the future. It is perhaps worth saying that the first feedback on this particular group endeavor has been that the Psychologist is not at all sure that the very difficult area of sexuality is satisfactorily being dealt with and blames herself partly for that. Also she is not sure that the male teacher, who is a first class teacher, is developing skills and understanding in group work and will be able to take charge of the group, for the next group leavers next year, which was the original hope. I think my colleague has got a long-term project on her hands and she is feeling a little disappointed about that at the moment.

Fran: Is the group work based on a reality therapy model?

Tony: I think that that would be the closest thing, yes. I'm perhaps not familiar enough with the details of the sessions to really structure it. It is worth saying that, and it's an interesting observation, that in order to describe what she does, it is perhaps a British characteristic to have less of a need to put a label on it.

Fran: Well, Tony, what would you like to see happening in London in terms of delivery of school psychological services. I realize your present delivery is a function of the economic situation and therefore you would have one school psychologist for many, many children. How many do you have?

Tony: About 6-7,000 children. Every profession wants to see more of itself. One reason why I would like to is simply that there are a lot of very fine young educational psychologists who have put a lot of energy and effort into getting trained and do not have jobs. I do not think increased numbers are the only answer. I think the future of educational psychology lies in an increased focus and expertise in two areas: cognitive psychology and social psychology. I am unconvinced that psychometrics can take us very much further in its present form. However, I am not sure criterion--referenced measurement is clearly the way forward. Another area is consultation in the schools. I believe this is the basis for individual understanding of children. If we don't have this, we don't have anything. Another area is understanding organizations, that is, social psychology of school settings. We are involved in the regular inspection of schools. In September, I will spend 4 full days in a secondary school in London. There will be 3 inspectors. My job will be to evaluate pastoral care of the school. Pastoral care is the work of the school in supporting pupils with personal and social problems so that they can make use of the school's educational program.

In London, in the future from 1982, every secondary school carries out a review of itself every 5 years and a psychologist plays a part in that. I would like to see, in the future, educational psychologists being involved in the review and future plans as the schools plan their future, having school psychologists getting their hands dirty in the planning process.

Fran: Our time is up Tony. I hope you have enjoyed this interview as much as I have. Let us meet at the next IAAP convention and see where the field of school psychology is leading at that time.

Tony: I would be very pleased to do that and I have truly enjoyed talking with you.

AN INTERVIEW WITH IAN MCEWEN, SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST FROM DUMFRIES, SCOTLAND

by Frances M. Culbertson

THE PRACTICE OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN LONDON, ENGLAND

Ian McEwen was in Madison, Wisconsin, during the month of October, 1985, visiting the schools, mental health centers, juvenile correctional facilities and courts. This interview took place during the last days of his stay in Madison. His visit was arranged by Frances Culbertson.

Fran: Ian, why don't we have you describe your city and anything else you would like to describe, as we are interested in your "roots."

Ian: It is a very small city. It is a very small town, in fact, in Scotland called Dumfries. It is on the south coast of Scotland. It is equidistant from Edinborough and Glasgow.

Fran: So you are between two large cities actually?

Ian: Well, yes. That is a reasonable description because within Scotland most people will know Edinborough and will know Glasgow but they will not know anything else.

Fran: You are working in a school system there?

Ian: Yes.

Fran: Ian, would you please give us a little description of your school system, if you will.

Ian: Our school system, I think, is like any other school system. Ours is a fairly small town, it has a population of around 20,000. I work within a region which is a much larger area.

Fran: What do you call that region?

Ian: It is called Dumfries and Galloway region. Dumfries is the main town of the region. Now within that region there is a population of approximately 100,000. The school setup will be very similar to the setup here, although there are one or two things which are not the same. We only have two sorts of school. We do not have an elementary, middle and high school, as you have here. We only have what would be the equivalent of elementary school and high school. We do not have a middle grade school, which would be the main difference. Secondly, our students can leave at age 16. They have that option. As I understand it here, the students attend until 18 years of age. So, I think that is a big difference as well.

Fran: When your students leave school at 16, what do they usually do?

Ian: Well, you have asked a question at a very useful time because at the present time there is an all-record level of unemployment in Scotland and the UK as a whole. At the moment within the UK as a whole, there is an unemployment level of 13%. That is very high. And, within Scotland, where I live, it is actually 18%. So what that means, in effect, is that roughly one child in five will be unable to find employment. So often students will leave school and they will leave school having nothing at all to do. Now within the last year or two the government has been aware of this and they have been offering them some form of extra education. They have a thing called YTS in Scotland which is the Youth Training Scheme. This is a combination of job training and further education. It is not a job, though, and at the end of that year you then become unemployed. So what is happening, in effect, is that you will become unemployed at age 17 as opposed to unemployed at age 16. It has not really helped, I do not think, substantially. Some children, of course, will go on to the university. You are not actually required to leave school at 16. You can do so, if you wish. You can stay until you are 18. And the students who remain in school until they are 18 will usually do it with a view to going on to higher education, either on to college or to the university.

Fran: What percentage would you say leave at 16? Have you any idea? Would it be about a fourth?

Ian: No, heavens above, it would be more than that. It would be over 60%, I would think.

Fran: Over 60% would be leaving at age 16—that is significant!

Ian: It would certainly be more than half. I cannot really give you an accurate figure.

Fran: We have going through our schools now, just recently, what we call a vocational thrust. Do you have that in your schools?

Ian: We have that in our schools, too. The thing I think that makes that very false is the fact that the students are leaving but are not going to jobs, no way. Students are leaving at 16 without any qualifications. These students in particular are the students who are not getting the jobs. They will be the one in five who do not get the jobs. It is the students with the qualifications who get the jobs.

Fran: Now, what do you mean, the students with qualifications?

Ian: Within Britain we have a slightly different system from the one you have here. As I understand it here, when students are 18 years old, they receive the high school diploma. We do not do that in Britain, in fact, they set exams at two different levels. They have exams for O grades, O for ordinary grades, and H grades, H for higher grades. Now you sit your H grades if you have done well in your O grades and you sit those at age 18. Now when you leave school, therefore, either at age 16 or 18, you can have H grades, fairly good grades, that would be required to go into college. But you may have some O grades which would be useful to get you a job. Most employers nowadays will look for children to have O grades of some description. Or, nowadays, you may have no qualifications at all. The students with no qualifications . . .

Fran: You mean, with no O grades? So there will be some who leave at 16 who have no O grades?

Ian: Yes, and the bulk will leave at 16 with O grades. And there will be some who reach 16 who get some O grades and they may choose to remain. If they do, they can either sit more O grades or they can get H grades which then gets them on to college.

Fran: So it is the person who has no O grades, leaving at 16, that makes up the unemployment picture?

Ian: Largely, yes.

Fran: And that generally has been the student who has not done that well in school?

Ian: Largely, yes.

Fran: Given that kind of a picture of your school system, what is the ratio of school psychologists to serving these students?

Ian: Well, that has been the big difference I found over here. That is one of the things I've got here on my list. Our ratio in Scotland must be in the region of 1 to 5,000. Now in this town of Madison, I have found that the ratio seems to be about 1 to 800 which I find quite unbelievable, an absolute luxury. And when I go back and tell my colleagues that; that will floor them all. One to eight hundred, that would be absolute luxury back where we come from. And, of course, I think that because we have such large numbers, what we have done has evolved into a quite different system of serving the students.

Fran: Numbers do play an important role in delivery of school psychological services.

Ian: I have to qualify what I say, having been here only two weeks. These are only my observations over the last two weeks and in a very specific district. Therefore, it should not be taken as being more than that. Our system back home is such that we have a central office where all the psychologists are based. They tend to respond to calls. In that sense we are like an ambulance service; we have to respond to calls.

Fran: You are like a crisis center?

Ian: Yes, we go out in a crisis. And that does not happen here, as I see it. But, again, I think that reflects the fact that we are overstretched. We are spread very thinly and you cannot do it all. I find it interesting here that I have met with most of the psychologists who are based in a school, actually based in a school, and they are there all day. Now our schools, we just do not do that. If you can make it into any of your schools, say, even on a half-day every week, on a regular basis, that would be a very, very good thing and the schools would be very happy with that. But we cannot guarantee that; we cannot really give them service because we are under too much pressure.

Fran: Now when you get a crisis call, could you think of a crisis call that you have had recently that you could describe to me what you do when a crisis comes?

Ian: Just before I left, there was one with a boy who was not coming to school, a boy, age 15, who had become a school refuser. Now, I'm not sure about you, but we tend not to get school refusers that late in life. They tend to be younger than that. And I was involved with this boy. We did pick up fairly quickly because we usually respond fairly quickly to school refusers on the basis that we can usually get them back to school as long as we act quickly.

Fran: Now, what categorizes him as a school refuser? How do you define that?

Ian: All the usual kind of symptoms. In the morning, approximately 8:30 for example, you have a sore stomach, a sore head, sickness, sore back. All these are signs. And they will be gone by 9:30 and, of course, in this interval his mother and father have said, "That's fine, don't go to school."

Fran: How many times does he have to have missed school before you get called in?

Ian: Well, that would depend, of course, on how soon the school was aware of what was going on. They, in turn, have to pass on the referral.

Fran: So who checks? Is there someone who takes care of attendance?

Ian: They have a guidance teacher in the school who checks. We do not have guidance counselors in the schools as you do here. Again, I find that quite a luxury that you have a guidance counselor in the schools. In our schools we have some of the staff who spend half the time doing guidance counseling and the other half teaching a class. It would depend on how quickly they would go into the case and how quickly they were aware of what was going on.

Fran: Then they call you in?

Ian: They, in turn, refer to us either by the phone or by referral forms, but usually the forms are filled out afterwards. In this particular case, I was called in fairly quickly. I went out fairly quickly, and I thought it was a fairly obvious case of school refusal. So that is the sort of thing I do. Now, we didn't get the boy back to school. When I left to come here he, in fact, was not in school. I came here on a Friday, and on Thursday morning, his mother was found in a local river. She had committed suicide.

Fran: How tragic and saddening for you.

Ian: Yes, very sad. It was very difficult. There was a lot going on in the family.

Fran: So maybe he was not really a school refuser in the typical sense but was staying home, having legitimate concerns about his mother.

Ian: Well, I think there was a lot going on we had not picked up on or been involved in as we had had the case referred to us only two weeks ago. This matter was quite tragic; I got quite shocked with that.

Fran: With 1 to 5,000, on a crisis basis, it is very difficult to provide the services and treatment strategies that may be needed.

Ian: Well, that is not quite strictly accurate. We do a lot of crisis work but all of the psychologists are allocated to certain schools. We have a school's list and the schools know who their psychologists are and where they can find them. Usually it is up to each of the psychologists to arrange with the schools when they will be in. And they do try and arrange to be in on a fixed day at a fixed time. But it is not always possible because of other pressures. It is often a case of the school that makes the most noise or the agency that makes the most noise that gets the most service. Having spoken to psychologists here in Madison, that seems to be the sort of thing that used to be here when they were a bit stretched as well. I think that is the image of a service that is understaffed. I think once your service is much better staffed, you evolve new systems. I find it so interesting here that the psychologists go into the schools and they are there all

day! Now, I do not know any psychologists at all in Scotland who will spend one day in a school or in any one place. A large part of my job involves traveling.

Fran: Well, I do not think that the Madison model is typical of the United States either.

Ian: Right. I have been told that I should not think that, but I still find that rather quite interesting that they have that luxury in Madison.

Fran: Yes, this is a city that invests considerably in the schools.

Ian: Right, I have been told all of that and I think I understand the reasons why, having the university here as well as the capitol of the state.

Fran: Well it also is a state that has placed a high value on education for many years.

Ian: Right, I have been told that as well. Therefore that means that you tend to spend a lot more on education than we do. And I have seen that in the schools as well. Other than having a large number of psychologists, they seem to be better equipped. I would also say they seem to be better maintained; and they are certainly better staffed than our schools are. Also, there are a lot of adults in all the schools. I think that is very good. We do not have that at home. Again, it is a simple matter of economics.

Fran: May I now take you on just a little different tangent, Ian? In Scotland, where you have all these different psychologists in one place, coming out of a central office, do you have psychologists who tend to specialize in certain areas?

Ian: Yes, I think we all do to a certain extent. For example, I work solely with adolescents. I work with adolescents who are getting into trouble either in schools or at home or with the law. I tend to get involved in the assessment of such children for other agencies.

Fran: What do some of the others do?

Ian: I have a colleague who is involved with children who are visually handicapped. I have another colleague who is involved with children who have a loss of hearing, some form of hearing impairment. But again, they will serve a large number of schools as well, but that is their specialty.

Fran: So, if a child comes up in a crisis situation with that, they would get involved?

Ian: They would try to get involved. If it was my case and I did not feel that sure of my ground in that case, I would ask him either to get involved with me or to get involved in the case. But we are overstretched and we do not do that as well as we should.

Fran: How many of you are there?

Ian: In our region there are 10.

Fran: That is a small number, isn't it?

Ian: Yes, and it is a very large area, as well.

Fran: Ian, given the large numbers, I can see why training is an important concern of yours.

Ian: Right. The first thing I found here is that the staff is much better trained than the staff we have in Scotland. The training in fact now in Scotland has changed quite a bit. In the past you were required to have taught for five years. And, either during that time or after that time, you were required to do a further degree in psychology or educational psychology, which in fact I did.

Fran: So you had to have a teaching degree?

Ian: You had to have a teaching degree first of all. I had that in math.

Fran: And how long did it take you to get that?

Ian: That took me four years.

Fran: Where did you go to school?

Ian: I went to Glasgow University.

Fran: For teacher education?

Ian: No, just to study mathematics. I studied mathematics for four years.

Fran: I see, then, you were a mathematics major?

Ian: Right, and then I spent a further year in college at which time I studied to become a teacher. Then I taught for five years. While I was teaching, in the evenings and on the weekends, I was studying psychology, which led to a Master's Degree in Psychology.

Fran: Oh, I see. In the evenings and on the weekends you went to school and did the additional coursework. Was that at Glasgow, too?

Ian: Yes, at Glasgow also and I received a Master's Degree in Psychology.

Fran: If you put all the weekends and nights together, what would that have been, an additional year?

Ian: No, actually three years.

Fran: Three years, after the teacher's degree?

Ian: Yes.

Fran: I see.

Ian: That, in fact, was how it used to be. Presently all of my colleagues and I would say virtually 85% of all the psychologists in Scotland, will have that as a qualification.

Fran: What do you mean, "Will have that as a qualification?"

Ian: They will have trained first as a teacher. That, in fact, has not changed. Within the last five years there are no new changes in that regulation.

Fran: When did most of them come in, five years ago?

Ian: Approximately. To be a teacher or not a teacher has been an ongoing debate for the past five years. It has now actually been outlawed by our union and you are no longer required to have been a teacher.

Fran: Your school psychology union? You have a union?

Ian: Well, we have a sort of organization. We do not have a particularly powerful voice. But we have a sort of organization. Now, in fact, what we do require is psychology as your first major (four years at the university). You must do that. That is the only mode of entry now, by doing psychology as your first degree. And then, if you have done fairly well, you spend the next two years doing a Master's Degree in Educational Psychology. I believe at the end of that you must spend six months at a college, gaining some knowledge of education from a teacher training college. Now, in fact, you are not required to be a qualified school teacher. At the end of that time you are then qualified to work as an educational psychologist. You spend the first year working under very close supervision of someone else, a person who is highly experienced.

Fran: When you say, "working under very close supervision," what does that mean?

Ian: It sounds better in theory than it is. I suspect in reality you are doing the job from day one. But there will be someone asking you how you are getting along; someone challenging your reports.

Fran: How many hours a week would a person supervise you?

Ian: I find that quite difficult to answer because I have not been involved with that at all. I would hope it would be in the region of at least an hour per day. I am not sure; I just cannot answer that.

Fran: That is what you would like, at least an hour a day?

Ian: I would think so, yes.

Fran: But the likelihood is that if you are that stretched out, I would imagine it is much less frequently?

Ian: Yes. One thing I think is interesting, in having this new mode of entry to the job at the moment, roughly 85% of all psychologists in Scotland are no longer qualified to be psychologists in Scotland. But since we are there, enforced, encumbered, as they say, then that is okay.

Fran: But 15 percent are the new breed?

Ian: Yes, and I believe they have received a much better training than I did for the job. They come out and they are more "au fait" with what is coming on than I was when I came out.

Fran: Meaning, they are ready to go?

Ian: Yes. And I think they are much more so than I was after my training. And most of my colleagues feel the same way.

Fran: Do you think that with that strong psychology background, they seem better able to cope with the problems that are confronting them?

Ian: I think that they might be. I have slight reservations about that but I think, by and large, they are. I think I am a great believer in undergoing the proper training for the job. I think that the training they are getting now is much better than any training I ever had. I have been doing this now for seven years so things have advanced in that time anyway. Things have changed . . . aspects, attitudes.

Fran: Ian, the next tangent I would like to take is the serving of children. As a school psychologist, you get crisis calls, I gather than you get a crisis call from wherever or from whomever it comes. However, you also focus as we do here in Madison on special education children.

Ian: We do a lot of special education work. That is still very much our responsibility. If you would ask our employers, what is our main job, they would see our main job as offering a service to special education and to keep that rolling, as it were.

Fran: Now in special education, do you have pretty much the same laws that we have here?

Ian: I suspect that we have, by and large. From what I have seen over here the past two weeks, I think that we are doing things in a very similar fashion. I think we are possibly a year or two behind you. For example, with regard to what we call integration of all handicapped children in the schools, what you call mainstreaming, we are doing that in Scotland, but we still have students of the mainstreaming who are still in special schools and in special units and as yet have not been moved up to schools. But it is underway. But as far as I could see here, all the students are mainstreamed. I was very impressed by that and it seems to have been done very well, too. I think it is helpful to have a psychologist full time in a school. We cannot afford to offer this service at this point.

Fran: Now we have some other services that I wonder if you have because we did talk about the counselors a little bit but we also have social workers.

Ian: We do not have counselors in schools. As far as I am aware, there is no school in Scotland with a social worker full time either.

Fran: So does the psychologist pay the visit to the home?

Ian: We spend a lot of time in homes, yes. I find that interesting here. I asked that of almost all of the psychologists. They tend only to see families in their offices. Because we, in fact, do not have offices in each school, we tend to go and see the family at home. However, I suspect there is a lot to be gained by seeing the family at home and seeing how the family and the children interact in their own setting on their own ground.

Fran: I am right with you.

Ian: So I do a lot of home visits. I spend a lot of time in homes and I have to often go at night to try and visit with all of them.

Fran: So basically when you are working, you are working just with psychologists?

Ian: I think we are very much an education-based service. We work with other psychologists and with members of a school staff in some form or another.

Fran: Let me ask you, Ian, are the teachers satisfied with the school psychologists in Scotland?

Ian: It is interesting. They are not very happy with what they get. They would like a lot more. We get the complaint that "we don't see much of you," and I think that is true. But even when they get to see you, I do not think they are happy with what they get.

Fran: You should remember that that is the same complaint here.

Ian: I suspect it might be an international complaint.

Fran: It is. In the reviews that I have done internationally, it has been an eternally complex problem--the relationship between the teacher and the school psychologist. I had interviews with a number of psychologists in Europe and invariably they said that they had been teachers, and when they were teachers they had a very good relationship with other teachers, but the minute they started to study school psychology and they became school psychologists in the very school system in which they had taught, then the relationship became strained.

Ian: Yes. And I can understand that. I think we all want to feel that we can go on as well as we can, but there are always problems.

Fran: I think it is the nature of the beast, maybe.

Ian: I think it is because it is our job, as we see it, to focus on the individual child whereas the school, by its very nature, being a very large system, has to focus on a large number of children, a larger group.

Fran: I think the reasons maybe are somewhat complex.

Ian: I think they are very complex. There are lots of other factors in Scotland; quite an important factor is that psychologists earn more than teachers.

Fran: How much?

Ian: About 50 percent more; so it is quite substantial.

Fran: That right there would make a problem.

Ian: It is quite a large problem, and a lot of things are said . . .

Fran: Like, "They're not really worth that much more", right? Is that what they might say?

Ian: Well, yes. They do not see that we do that much more to earn the extra money because "we do not ever see you; you're always somewhere else." And I think that is one of the reasons sometimes

some of the psychologists leave because there can often be quite a lot of animosity and a joke in our office is that you have got to learn to be thick-skinned, you have got to be thick-skinned to survive. And there is a lot of truth to that. I can see that.

Fran: Now when we get together and review children, if a child has a problem and we are programming for that child, we have what we call a multidisciplinary team. Is that something you have in Scotland?

Ian: Yes.

Fran: Who would be on your multidisciplinary team?

Ian: There would be a social worker, as likely as not, and at least one doctor from the local health board who goes into the schools. I do not know if you have that here. We have doctors employed by the health board who, in fact, go down to the schools the same as the psychologist. These things are in fact chaired by psychologists, these meetings, I think you call them M-teams here. We have them in Scotland and they are chaired by the psychologist. It would involve a doctor, a social worker, the staff from the school and often the parent as well--it is optional for parents.

Fran: This M-team you have that has the psychologist as the person chairing it, does it include a nurse as well?

Ian: It could have, yes.

Fran: And a social worker, and the teachers and parents?

Ian: And a speech therapist if they have been involved.

Fran: And you said that most of the psychologists are located in a central place. Are you located in a community mental health clinic?

Ian: No, we have a completely separate office which is only for psychologists.

Fran: So you are not tied into the community clinic?

Ian: No, not at all. We, in fact, do not have such a thing in Scotland. In fact, all these agencies operate from separate headquarters, basically. So I have been quite impressed with what I have seen here. How all the groups seem to expand and merge a lot more than ours do. We all tend to have separate empires to which we retreat. But we always meet in a central point.

Fran: I see. So when you are going to have a review of a child, would it be the psychologist who contacts the doctor and the social worker?

Ian: He would usually call the reviews, yes, and we would have them in our office. But just out of interest, our office has been closed down and we have been moved into the educational administration headquarters. So from December 17 this year, we will no longer have a separate existence.

Fran: And you are going to be under educational administration?

Ian: We will be under the educational administation's block (building).

Fran: And you will have a separate section there?

Ian: Yes, but I feel it is an exercise for them in control. It is quite ominous, I think personally.

Fran: I see. Yes, because it is having another definition . . .

Ian: Well, we have always been a fairly independent body and we have had a fairly independent voice on a lot of very important issues. And I feel that we are getting slightly brought into line.

Fran: Well, I guess you will have to see how that turns out.

The last thing I wanted to ask you, Ian, is this: If you were going to advise a young person today on entering the profession, what would you say?

Ian: That is a good question. I would still say go ahead, but I would feel much happier for them because I believe they will undergo much better and more adequate training for the job then I did. When I started, and all of my friends started at roughly the same time with roughly the same kind of background and training, I felt incompetent for a long time, and that is not a very pleasant feeling. You are not quite up to the job for a long time. And I do not think the young staff, that we now have coming in, have the same anxieties about the job. I think that is better. I think that is quite important. I think you've got to be properly trained.

Fran: But if someone said, "Should I go into school psychology, would you advise me to go into school psychology, would it be a satisfying profession?"--what would you say?

Ian: I suspect it is not that simple--if you want my honest answer.

Fran: Would you say to him, "Well, I would want you to think about it and visit and see if it is a good thing."

Ian: Yes, I believe so.

Fran: And now, my very last question; just off the top of your head, given everything that you have experienced in Madison, what seemed most valuable to you over here?

Ian: I have a list here but I will not take too long. But let me actually say that if you add up the good points and the bad points, there is a lot more good points. But, very briefly, I did feel that I was very impressed with all of the staff I have met here, all of the psychologists. They all seemed much better trained. They all seemed very much aware of what is happening as well in the world of psychology. They seemed to be up to date. I was very impressed by that. Although I think you can do that when you have a lot of time. It should be easier when you have a lot of staff sharing the burdens. I was very impressed everywhere I went by the level of organization that was displayed by the psychologists. There was not a day passed when Iwas not impressed by that. Everything was nicely organized, written out, everything was done, there was a list; it was all very formally organized and I was very impressed by that. Again, I think it helps to have time. There is a lot of things we would like to do which we cannot do because of time factors. I was impressed by your ratio, in this town, of one to eight hundred. I was very taken by how you manage to mainstream all the students into the schools and how well accepted the children are in the schools. That has to be for the good of all the children in education; and, in the long term, for the adults when they all grow up and accept handicapped children. I hope our students can go that well in the future. Our plans are going that way at the moment but we are still a few years behind you. I was very impressed by what you call the EC programs--the Early Childhood programs. Now, we are getting into that in the schools, but we, in fact, have not managed to bring these students into the schools yet. We have started to go out from the schools to visit handicapped students, some at the age of six weeks, in fact, in some cases, up to the age of five. But they only work at home with the families. As yet we have not managed to bring the children into the schools. But there are plans afoot. And I was very, very impressed by that. And there were various other things I saw as well. You seem to have a lot of useful programs. You have the AOD which was the alcohol and drug abuse program; I was very taken with that as well. I like to just add as a last point that there were one or two things which I was not impressed with, that just give me some little cause for concern. May I add those?

Fran: Yes, of course.

Ian: I had the feeling on occasion, sometimes, that there seems to be very early labeling of children here which we would not do back home. For example, I found students in school, age 5, who are labeled LD or ED. Back home in Great Britain we almost never label children at all until they are a good bit older.

Fran: About what age would you begin to label them?

Ian: 8, 9, 10, possibly. I think labeling has implications.

Fran: Yes, it certainly does and I am really interested in what you are saying. How would you serve these children?

Ian: Usually by putting extra staff into schools and into classes. I also would ask, if a child is labeled ED, what the chances of him getting out of the ED stream are and the prospects are not very good. And I cannot accept that. And it is reassuring that the ED students at least are in the mainstreamed schools, but they are being labeled for a long time, I think. I must confess that that caused me some concern, but I think it is only because we don't do it that way. The other thing that I found was that I found it odd to have kids locked up in this country, under the age of 16, and, in fact, some kids as young as 12. We do not do that back home and I found it quite appalling.

Fran: You mean in the juvenile court system?

Ian: Yes, in fact, you cannot be locked up in Great Britain until you are 16. I think that is slightly better myself. Now, having said that I would leave you then, as a last thought, with a question which I am not sure about but which I will obviously think about when I return. It seems to me we have the same problems in the UK as you have here, but they seem to emerge in this country in the children at a much earlier age. Things like drugs, alcohol, crime, sex, etc. And it seems to emerge in children here about the age of 11 or 12, or so I have been informed in my two week's stay. Back home this would not emerge until maybe 14, 15.

Fran: It is almost close to when they are leaving school.

Ian: Yes, I find an obvious gap here. And I think that is one of the reasons, in fact, that we do not have to lock up kids under 16 because we do not have the same level of concern, crime. I am just wondering why that is.

Fran: Well, I am wondering whether you have the same level of seriousness of crime which, I think, may play a big part in why there is a tendency here to put them in a controlled setting. But I guess that would be something interesting to look into . . . to see why that is. And I am not really sure myself.

Ian: I am not sure either. I think there are a lot of factors.

Fran: Well, Ian, I want to thank you. It has been a pleasure having you visit Madison and I hope you will return once again, very soon, and do bring your family.

Ian: It was a pleasure and I would like to return.

AN INTERVIEW WITH PROFESSOR ROSINE DEBRAY, CHAIRPERSON, DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY—SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY UNIVERSITÉ RENÉ DESCARTES, PARIS, FRANCE

by Frances M. Culbertson

This interview with Professor Rosine DeBray occurred on May 18, 1983. The interviewer was at that time a guest lecturer at the Universite René Descartes.

FC: Professor DeBray, could you please tell me about the requirements that students must have to enter the School Psychology Program at the University of Paris.

RD: Most of the students must be a teacher in the French public schools. They must have been teaching for a minimum of 5 years. We do not choose the students in the school psychology program ourselves. They are chosen by an administrative commission. Formally, most of them are chosen at the national level. They have to be recommended by the local authorities; and then the recommendation goes to a higher group. Then, they are screened by that higher level group. And after that appraisal, the list goes on to the national level. We do not choose them. In fact, we see the recommended list but we have to say "yes." We do not even choose the number of students admitted. We just say we cannot have more than 120 because we do not have enough room to put more than this number in a class.

FC: What about the students who apply? What are they like?

RD: Sometimes the students are very interested in psychology, but sometimes it is because the students do not wish to continue teaching. And it is the only way to leave teaching and remain in the schools when you are a teacher in a public school. Does this happen in your country also?

FC: This appears to be a common condition everywhere. I think some teachers seem to outgrow their role of teacher and want to get into something more varied, different, stimulating, whatever.

RD: There are some legal requirements here. The students must not be over 40 years of age and other such requirements like that.

FC: Do they take any tests?

RD: No, no test.

FC: So, the appraisal groups make the decision based on the student's backgrounds and the paper they prepare indicating their experience.

RD: Well—they have been inspected in the school situation by an Inspector, like all teachers are.

FC: Is that an interview?

RD: Well, yes. In general, the Inspector comes and sees how the classroom is going on and writes comments about the visit. Notations are very important.

FC: So he/she comes to the classroom and sees the teacher in the real world.

RD: Yes, but sometimes these inspection notes are very old and not necessarily something that is recent about the applicant for the university program. There are good things and bad things about the process of choosing the students because you see, I think, we are free. We do not choose them. If you choose people, in fact you must be very careful, for if the choice is poor, well it is on your head.

FC: Well, of the number who come in, how many would you say leave the program?

RD: Not many. In fact, one or two in a year--not even that many. Very few.

FC: So how many would there be, about 120 do you think?

RD: Yes, that is about right.

FC: So how many faculty do you have for 120 students?

RD: Two, full time faculty. There is Professor Mottier, and myself. Professor Mottier teaches mainly interview procedures. In the first year and second year, all the groups are taught interviewing techniques. It is very important what Professor Mottier is doing. She has been doing it for years--counseling. The students are there in small groups. It is the only way to teach interviewing--in small groups.

FC: Do they learn therapy techniques?

RD: We try, in fact, not to give them therapy techniques because we think that they are not really prepared for that. And that it is not the university task to teach them to do that. But they must learn the interview techniques.

FC: Will they use those techniques for counseling and refer the students to someone else for psychotherapy?

RD: Yes, we do that.

FC: So now we have about 120 students entering and I have your program here which describes the preparation for it and the first and second year requirements. What would you say the goal of the first year would be for the students? I see that we have a course in Child Development, we have Research Methods course and a course in the Assessments of the Child (would that be an infant, or a child?).

RD: Well, child mostly. This area of study is quite heavy because, you see, they do not do only the first year and second year of school psychology. They do also first year and second year of what we call "D.E.U.G." (of psychology) in the university.

FC: What is that?

RD: It is the first year of study in the university because when they are a teacher they have received only the lowest level, the baccalaureate level. So that at the same time that they do these two years in school psychology, they do also the two first years of graduate study in psychology, at the university.

FC: Do they get a Master's Degree?

RD: No, they get what we call "D.E.U.G." which is granted at the end of the first two years of university study in psychology. It means baccalaureate degree plus two years at the university in the area of psychology. But you do not get a degree. And it is quite important for them to have it because you see, in fact when they have the "D.E.U.G." and a diploma it means that they have two years beyond the baccalaureate. In fact, clinical psychology has "D.E.U.G." plus five years beyond the baccalaureate. At present, it is as if there were two kinds of psychology; a "D.E.U.G." plus five, and a "D.E.U.G." plus two. So now we are trying to make the school psychology training equivalent to the clinical training, that is "D.E.U.G." plus five years. But, for the moment, it is impossible because students are paid by the State during the two years of study. So, they do not pay the university for their study. They are paid as they were when they were teachers. So you see, at the State level, it is impossible to give them a third year paid like that.

FC: Are they willing to come themselves and pay? Would they be willing to come to the university and pay for the third year?

RD: Oh, I do not know. They are not paid very much as teachers, and most are married with children. Because they are older and have families, it is quite a big problem.

FC: As I look at this program, your first year is really where they get their basic foundation in psychology. Then, in the second year, it is an expansion on some of the basic courses given in the first year. I notice that you start bringing in the environment, the social psychological situation of the student and the difficulties of children. Would those difficulties be like learning difficulties, or emotional problems of the student?

RD: Yes, exactly. And they have some courses which are the same as the clinical psychology students. They are together with clinical psychology students.

FC: What is "D.E.S.S.?"

RD: That means "D.E.U.G." plus three years of study. And that is what we call the "diploma level," (baccalaureate plus five).

FC: After they finish, I see that they have to have an examination.

RD: A very heavy examination is given at the end of the first year, in order to pass in to the second year. And then, at the end of the second year, another very heavy examination is given.

FC: How many days does that examination take?

RD: It takes two days. They have two exams of 3 hours length each day and then they have also to do what we call "memoire." You see you have some here.

FC: You have a thesis, like a master's thesis?

RD: It is like a master's thesis but it is still a "memoire."

FC: Must it be research, or could it be a seminar paper?

RD: That is one of the major changes I made when I first came into the department, because before it was something very simple. It was about what they had seen in their work setting, in their practical observing, and it was quite--it was not really research work. So I opened it so that they could really do research. But I opened it also so that they could do the research, or its equivalency later, so that it would not be too heavy immediately, you see.

FC: So they do that at the end of their first year or--?

RD: At the end of their second year, they do their research.

FC: Could you just give me an example of what might be done by one of the students?

RD: Here is one that covers the research of children with writing problems. And here you have another one "Adaptation to School of Migrant Children--Biculturalism, Bilingual." It is a very wide subject and it is very important that it be an extremely wide topic. So during the second year they come and see Professor Mottier, or myself, or other people on the staff and they can then discuss the theme of their research paper and we try to help them to do it.

FC: So they have the research paper and they have their examinations at the end of the first and second year of study. Then, you mentioned that they have a practicum. You were saying that they go into their practicum two weeks after they are into their first year of study.

RD: They have a practicum for a month, and then later on, they go back for two days a week, or for a day and a half a week, in the schools.

FC: For how many weeks?

RD: During the whole year, sometimes they stay in the same office and sometimes they can change offices for the second year.

FC: So at first they go for a month, and is that month full time?

RD: Yes, the month is full time and then after it is a day and a half each week.

FC: And who supervises them when they are in that setting?

RD: Well, they are on the staff of the school psychologist so it is the school psychologist who has the responsibility and who supervises the student.

FC: How far away from Paris are their school placements?

RD: They can be very far away, so it is very difficult for them sometimes because they leave their families for a whole week. They have a lot of work because they have to meet the requirements of the "D.E.U.G." They work very hard, really, as the "D.E.U.G." is very demanding.

FC: I have a sense, as you describe it, that they really do work very hard. Now, after they have finished this program, do they go back to their original school, where they had been teaching?

RD: No, because there are not school psychologists for every school. It depends on the district. Sometimes there is one school psychologist for 1,000 children, 1,500 children, or even more sometimes.

FC: Let me ask you, have you had any laws, national laws, that have played their part in how a school psychologist works--how a school psychologist carries out his/her job?

RD: It is not really laws, but decrees. And in fact they are not very precise. I do not know if it is told exactly in the law, but in fact they must not do psychotherapy.

FC: Is this because the clinical psychologists do not want them to do it?

RD: No, it is because on the level of the educational system the officials do not want the clinicians to come into the schools.

FC: Are there laws guiding their work, for example, the law of Réné Haby? Do you remember that law?

RD: Yes.

FC: Did that law have an impact on school psychologists?

RD: Not really. The last decree established what we call the "G.A.P.P." And in the "G.A.P.P." you have school psychologists and then you have what we call psychometricians as well as another group who are called psychopedagogues. So, the "G.A.P.P." studies at the university have three levels; three different students working together, who are doing a "G.A.P.P." The law states that you have one "G.A.P.P." for every one thousand and fifty children.

FC: Do the "G.A.P.P." people work together like a multidisciplinary team?

RD: Yes, just like that.

FC: So the psychopedagogy person, would that be like a teacher--a learning disability teacher?

RD: Yes. All three of them have been teachers, and all three can do this special formation. But in fact, we are very far from having the right numbers, and I think that now we are going to give up this kind of short term plan because we cannot carry it out.

FC: Now, when you find a child having a learning problem, what is the procedure that is followed?

RD: The procedure in general is the teacher who says that something is wrong--makes the referral. And then, the law states that we must ask the parents if they will give permission to do the evaluation. And then after that, the child can be taken up by the "G.A.P.P." team in school. They assign a task to each person involved with the child and the "G.A.P.P." comes in on certain jobs.

FC: Could you just give me an example of what might be a task of a "G.A.P.P." member? Let us give an example of a "G.A.P.P." For example, what would the psychopedagogic person do?

RD: The psychopedagogic person would be more likely to take the child by him or herself and try to teach him to read, for example, or for difficulties in mathematics, and so on.

FC: And the psychometrician, what would that person do?

RD: Well, this person would be for a child with multiproblems.

FC: Perceptual problems?

RD: Yes, and also if you have a child quite hyperkinetic. But, in fact, if the problems are too strong, then the "G.A.P.P." cannot do anuthing and the child is referred to a special center, an outside center for the hyperkinetic child.

FC: And what would the psychologist do in the "G.A.P.P.?" Would that person do intelligence tests?

RD: Yes, that person would do intelligence testing, mostly.

FC: Would he/she do projectives?

RD: Well, in fact, they are not taught that in the two year program. We cannot teach projectives in that time, but they can have the projectives formation if they want. But that is for them to decide. They have to pay for it, and so they have to decide what to do.

FC: So what tests are they taught?

RD: Well, we have got a very good course in Piagetian assessment. I like Piaget testing very much.

FC: I reviewed those materials and I thought they were excellent.

RD: Oh, we have plenty of tools. We have Piaget, and we have the testing procedures of Réné Zazzo. Do you know about him?

FC: No, I do not.

RD: Réné Zazzo has been a clinical psychologist, not psychoanalyst, but he has developed very good assessment procedures for our children and there are many tests in his battery.

FC: Do you use anything like the Bender Gestalt Test?

RD: No, we do not.

FC: Do you use the Draw-A-Person test at all?

RD: Yes, I do.

FC: When would they learn the procedure for the Draw-A-Person test? Would that be in the second year or the first year of study?

RD: Oh, I suppose probably in the second year. But you see, it is what I mentioned previously, interview methodology with Madame Mottier is very important. Interviewing is a very good thing and that is a point on which I am reviewing the program very carefully. I am looking at it because I do not want them to become bad testers. I think they must be very good testers, but also have the abilities to develop broader conclusions from their data and interview situation. To be able to use their testing and to be able to view the tests as more than just a score is an important goal for us.

FC: The children that you were talking about, the migrant children, do you get involved in a different assessment for them?

RD: For the moment we do not have any different tools. We use the tests we have up to a point, and then we try to see where they are in their world.

FC: So you really assess minorities, in a way, very much like we do in the U.S., using adaptive scales, a non-verbal assessment strategy.

RD: Of course.

FC: Do you have a specific adaptive behavior scale that you use with these children?

RD: I do not think so--no--I do not think so. We have the WISC-R now.

FC: Well, I want to thank you very much for this interview. I wish we could continue but I know you have a time constraint. Maybe we will meet again another time and we can talk further about our mutual interests. However, may I just ask you one more question? After the students finish their two years of schooling, if they wish to go on, let us say into the clinical psychology program or into another degree program, can they do that?

RD: Well, into clinical psychology they could but they must get the two years missing from a university, you see. So of course they can do it, but they must find time and they are not paid any more by the government to go on for their studies. Lots of them do do it, however.

FC: Do they apply for the clinical psychology program then and then pay their own way?

RD: Well, in fact, one does not pay here to study at the university. It is really if they have the time to do it. And, if they do not live too far from Paris, that is the main point. But a lot of them go on, and I myself now have students who are getting on with their thesis so they have "D.E.U.G."/five years of psychology.

FC: Where did you get your degree?

RD: I, myself? Here in Paris in clinical psychology. I did all of my studying here at the University of Paris. I started teaching in 1968 and I did all my degree work to become professor right here.

FC: So, to become a professor here in Paris, as you are now, professor and director of the School Psychology program, what would the requirements be?

RD: Well, my requirements were, first of all, "D.E.U.G." plus five years, "D.E.S.S." and the research project and I also studied as an analyst.

FC: You got your training in Psychoanalysis after your clinical degree?

RD: Yes, right after, just after my degree. It is private. You have to pay your own way. Psychoanalyst is not existing at the University for the student here in France. I went to work at the Hospital of Psychosomatic and there I did my doctoral thesis on a psychosomatic topic.

FC: Your final thesis was on the psychosomatic problems of children, is that correct?

RD: Well, it was. My book was published last month and it is titled "Psychosomatic Equilibrium." It is on the mental organization of the diabetic, adult diabetics, but of course I went back to how they managed themselves during childhood, it is really a clinical, psychoanalytic piece of work.

FC: Well, I want to thank you, Dr. DeBray for your time. It has been a great pleasure to be with you and I hope you will visit with me in the U.S. and I can share some experiences with you.

Description of terms:

D.E.U.G. = Diplôme (Diploma) d'Etudes (Studies) Universitaires (University) Generale (general).

D.E.S.S. = Diplôme (Diploma) d'Etudes (Studies) Superiéures (Higher) Spécialisees (Specialties)

G.A.P.P. = Groupe (Group) d'Aide (Help) Psychologie (Psychology) Pedagogue (Teaching) (Help--Support Groups in Schools).

AN INTERVIEW WITH JEAN CLAUDE GUILLEMARD FROM DOURDAN, FRANCE

by Frances M. Culbertson

THE PRACTICE OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN FRANCE

This interview with Jean Claude Guillemard took place in Paris, France, May, 1983, when Professor Frances Culbertson was a guest lecturer at the University of Paris.

FC: Well, Jean Claude, maybe we could begin with how you became a school psychologist.

JG: I began my studies in school psychology in 1968 at the Institute of Psychology in Paris. Before that I was a teacher in the primary school. There are some exceptions but all the school psychologists in France have been teachers before. I devoted a full two years of university training to become a school psychologist.

FC: You had indicated that you had taught 10 years before you went into school psychology.

JG: Yes.

FC: Then how long did it take you to prepare to be a teacher? Did you go to high school and then what?

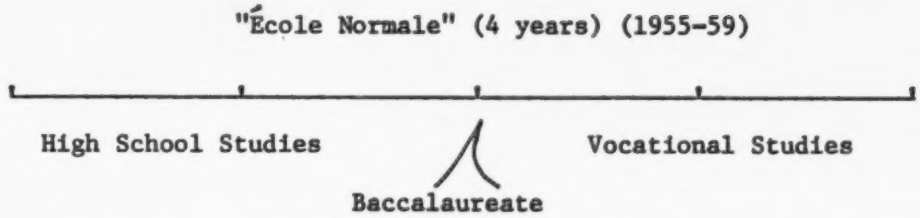
JG: No, the teachers for primary and pre-elementary school are trained in what we call "École Normale"--that is a teacher-training center.

FC: Now, do you do that after you have gone through high school?

JG: Yes. In fact, when I was young I entered the "École Normale" at 16 years of age; that would be the equivalent of high school in the "École Normale." I had a scholarship to follow my studies at the "École Normale" and I prepared there for the Baccalaureate.

FC: The Baccalaureate for the high school years--you did it in the "École Normale?"

JG: Yes, and after, I had two years of training to become a teacher but always in the "École Normale." This was in 1955-59. Now teachers are trained in normal schools in 3 years after the Baccalaureate. Here is a diagram to show you how my schooling went.



Then I was a teacher for 10 years. After that time, I began my studies in school psychology.

FC: I see, after 10 years.

JG: Yes, in fact you must have some experience as a teacher—at least 5 years—to become a school psychologist.

FC: So then did you enter the University of Paris at that time?

JG: Yes, I got my school psychologist degree there and I was appointed to a school as a school psychologist.

FC: Were you a teacher and a school psychologist at the same time?

JG: No, I was just a school psychologist; I was no longer a teacher. Then I decided to prepare for a higher degree in psychology even though I was working full-time as a school psychologist. It was not necessary; it did not change anything in my status to follow other studies; but it was important for me, to deal with all the problems of the school psychologist—with all the problems that the school has had—because the two years training is not sufficient to deal with all the problems. Most school psychologists work for higher studies even when they have their school psychology degree. Two years of training is not sufficient to make one work effectively.

FC: Could you review for me, how a student becomes a school psychologist?

JG: About the training of school psychologists in France, I can imagine how difficult it is to understand our system because it cannot be compared—not only with other countries but even with other university training centers in France.

As a "regular student," in psychology or in any other discipline, you enter the University of Paris after the high school years (between 18 and 20). You follow the first university cycle (2 years); then the second university cycle (2 years); and if you have succeeded in your exams, you get the "Maitrise" (the MA's Degree). After that—if you like—you enter an Institute (for example the Institute of Psychology in Paris) and follow the courses to get a specialized degree (D.E.S.S.) for example in clinical psychology, or in social psychology, or in industrial psychology, etc.

As a student in school psychology, you enter the university after a vocational experience (at least 5 years of vocational experience, but more likely 10 or 15 years). So, you are generally a man or a woman of about 30 years of age. If you have no other degree but your teacher's degree, you have to follow simultaneously the courses of the first cycle degree (to get the D.E.U.C. in psychology) and the courses of the Institute of Psychology (to get the school psychology degree).

In other words you follow simultaneously 2 series of courses that have to be followed one after the other if "regular students" are to become a school psychologist (but this is not the case in the National Education System) so you can see even at this level, standards are different.

FC: What do you think you learned the first year of your education as a school psychologist and what do you think you learned the second year?

JG: As far as I can remember, in fact there were two streams of studies in Paris. We had a stream of studies at the Department of Psychology, where we followed what we call in the French university the first cycle of studies. And at the same time, we followed at the Institute of Psychology professional training in school psychology.

FC: What did you have in your first cycle; what would be included?

JG: Oh, there was Child Psychology, General Psychology, Psychopathology, Psychopedagogy.

FC: What would that be, like Educational Psychology?

JG: Educational Psychology, too, yes.

FC: Would you have had statistics or research courses?

JG: Yes, there was mathematics, and especially statistics in all of the courses--boring! I worked for mathematics more than all the other courses.

FC: That is a very common pattern with students everywhere it seems.

JG: In fact, in France, most students in psychology follow studies in the School of Letters rather than Science to avoid too much mathematics.

FC: So, they are not that well versed in the mathematics and in the research methods.

JG: Yes, before becoming a student in school psychology I was more interested in literature than in mathematics.

FC: So in your first cycle it was really an introduction to psychology, was it not? And then you took courses at the University of Paris in the Psychology Department, and what were those courses?

JG: Well, it depended on the Psychology Department.

FC: So then, in the second year, what did you take?

JG: More of the same things, but at a higher level.

FC: And then you graduated with what degree?

JG: The degree that was obtained at the end of the two years was what is called the D.E.U.G. in Psychology. (D for Diplome (Degree), E for Etudes (Studies), U for Universitaires (University) and G for Generale (General). These studies were about 15 hours a week, in lectures, and practical work. Also, there were lectures and practical work in school psychology at the Institute of Psychology. So students in school psychology had two obligations to go to at the same time and needed to allow 13 hours a week for school psychology.

FC: Now let me see if I understand this correctly. You had about 15 hours of lectures and practical work in general psychology, and then you have 15 hours of lectures and practical work specifically in school psychology.

JG: Yes. The two streams of studies were quite parallel. One had studies at the University Department and studies at the Institute of Psychology.

FC: The Institute is called what, Jean Claude?

JG: That would be the Institute H. Piéron, 28 Rue Serpente, Paris. And at that Institute is where one has the specific studies in school psychology.

FC: And then, they study also at the University of Paris in the Psychology Department, correct?

JG: Yes. Perhaps there is a concern about the fact that students have to follow courses in different places often far from one another.

FC: Then when you got through, where did you have your first job?

JG: My first job was in a Paris suburb at Bagneux. I was a teacher in this town before, and even in the very school where I came back as a school psychologist.

FC: Did you find it difficult to go back as a school psychologist?

JG: At the beginning I did not find it was difficult. But after a time, the relations between my ex-colleagues, my ex-teacher colleagues and I became less compatible. I think it was unusual for me and for them because we knew each other before as teachers. You see--I was known there as a teacher--and I suppose the change in status created some difficulties. There is a problem of rivalry between teachers and school psychologists.

FC: Do you think this is inevitable?

JG: Yes. I am not sure but in my case it did create a problem and many problems developed.

FC: In what way did it express itself?

JG: For example, teachers think that school psychologists have very easy work--have an easy job. Some of them think that we have nothing to do, in fact, because we are not with the pupils all the day, without being there 9-5 in the classroom with the pupils.

FC: This appears to be a universal problem, Jean Claude. It is very interesting. But wherever school psychologists are working in the school situation, that attitude does seem to be a common one that develops. So, did you stay about a year?

JG: Yes, I stayed at Bagneux until last year (1982). Last year I bought a house in Dourdan so I had to change my job place. And I could have a job not far from Dourdan, at Etampes, which is a small town of about 15,000 people. It is in a rural area in the southern part of the district of Essonne. Essonne is one of the districts of the Paris region.

FC: When you were working in Bagneux, what were your referral problems--what kinds of children did you have referred to you?

JG: When I was in Bagneux, I was in--it is a town where there are many people--immigrants, and especially people from North Africa.

FC: So would they be Tunisians and Algerians?

JG: Especially Algerians. In fact many of the children were born in France. Some of them had linguistic problems, but most of them had learning problems.

FC: In France these people are in a low socio-economic bracket, right?

JG: Yes.

FC: Generally, what kind of children would be referred to you? Was it that they had trouble learning in school, or were they especially learning problems? How about behavior problems?

JG: Yes, there were of course some with behavior problems.

FC: About what percentage would you have had?

JG: I do not know if I--just roughly--I would say 90% were learning problems and the rest were behavioral problems. Some children had two problems--learning problems and behavioral problems.

FC: Did you have many children who were regarded--slow?

JG: Yes.

FC: Were the learning problems mostly slow learners or were they children of average intelligence but they had some difficulties?

JG: Most of them were intelligent children but, for example, if you used a test like the W.I.S.C.-R., the verbal part of the test was rather bad and the performance part of the test was quite normal.

FC: There was quite a discrepancy?

JG: Yes.

FC: Do your laws in France define when a child is a slow learner, or if a child has learning problems, and what should happen if this is so?

JG: In fact, when a child has very important learning problems, they are referred to a school psychologist, and he/she can be directly oriented to a special class.

FC: Within the school?

JG: Yes.

FC: In the special class in the school building, or do they have to go to another building or some other school in another district?

JG: There are special classes in the school. But in fact, the special class is for a larger area than the school itself.

FC: For a larger area than the immediate school district?

JG: Yes.

FC: So then the children are bused in from other places?

JG: Yes. When I was in Bagneux, because the area was rather small and there were several schools with special classes, any child in the town could go to the special class by him or herself. But now in Essonne it seems to be that we are in a desert regarding classes for special education. The areas for special classes are larger than they were where I worked before. Many children live far from outside the town so there is a company of taxis that pick up the children at home and transfer them to the school and then take them back to their home.

FC: I wonder, Jean Claude, could we take me through a referral process of a child? For example, say a child is referred to you with a problem--let us say a learning problem. How would you go through it, how would you handle it, what would happen?

JG: I must tell you first that we have no School Psychology Services in France but we have an original structure which does not exist anywhere in the world. I spoke about this in several international colloquias and nowhere was there something like this. We have in France what we call the G.A.P.P. which stands for Groupe d'Aide Psycho-Pédagogique (Psycho Pedagogic Aide Group means Help Support Group). G.A.P.P., we say "gap" (read as one word like gap). It is a prevention team composed of two remedial teachers and one school psychologist. G.A.P.P.'s are settled in one school and work with the teachers and the pupils of several schools.

FC: I see.

JG: So a "G.A.P.P." is composed of two remedial teachers, and one school psychologist. And a "G.A.P.P." is intended to serve about 900-1,000 children in the area. So I worked in such a structure in Bagneux and in fact I worked only in one big school and three pre-elementary schools. In my area I had not more than 700 children. So, I could do the kind of work that was very interesting for me, especially of prevention. I worked especially in the pre-elementary schools and I could know the children when they entered the pre-elementary school.

FC: At what age was that?

JG: At three, when they were three years old. Now, some children enter the pre-elementary school at two.

FC: So they lowered the age.

JG: Yes.

FC: When did they do that?

JG: It began in the 1980s. It is not generalized now but it depends on the schools. If there are many children in their school, they do not accept early admittance. If there are not many children, and there may be a closing of some classes, then they do allow for young children. And of course, there is the request of family to accept their children at school. So I could work with very young children.

FC: I see. When a child was referred to the prevention team, what would happen?

JG: In fact, the children were not exactly referred to the prevention team because the prevention team was always in the school. My colleagues and I were in the classrooms.

FC: Would you go into the classroom?

JG: Yes, we were in the classes--we play with the children on the playground--we talk with the teachers--we were always in the school so we could observe the children at work and at play.

FC: Did you go into and out of the classrooms? Did you visit the classrooms?

JG: Yes.

FC: And this was acceptable to the teacher?

JG: Yes, in the pre-elementary school generally it was accepted. Relations are easier with teachers in pre-elementary schools.

FC: What would happen in the elementary schools?

JG: Few teachers allow the school psychologist, or the remedial teacher, to enter the class to observe the children, so in the elementary school the children were referred by the teacher to the school psychologist. The remedial teacher generally helps the children in his/her room.

FC: Who would decide whether a child was referred to a school psychologist or to a remedial teacher? Who would make that decision?

JG: In fact, it would depend on the person.

FC: Would it be the problem?

JG: Not exactly the problem. Perhaps when it concerned behavioral problems the teacher referred to me, but not always. Some teachers preferred to speak with me; some teachers preferred to speak with a remedial teacher. The work in the G.A.P.P. is a team work and if the team is okay, any member of the team can receive a request (from a teacher, from a child, from a family). Then the team decides (according to the analysis of the case) who takes the child in charge.

FC: In other words, there was a preference for one or the other, teacher or school psychologist. If a teacher preferred someone, the child went to that person rather than the other person. Is that it?

JG: Ask me that question again.

FC: What I was asking was how do children get referred. Say there were two teachers and yourself, the school psychologist. You said sometimes the children were referred to one of the special teachers and sometimes they were referred to you.

JG: Oh, yes. After the referral we would discuss the case together. We would speak with the teacher who made the referral also. And then, we saw the family of the child, too.

FC: So who would see the family and who would talk to the teacher? Did you split up the job?

JG: Most of the time the school psychologist sees the family--but not always.

FC: But as a general rule, is this how it goes?

JG: Yes.

FC: Who saw the teacher and the child in the classroom?

JG: It depends. We collect information about the problem of the child--we ask the teacher what is the problem of the child or what is your problem with this child? So it depends. If it is especially a learning problem, we try to distinguish what sort of learning problem. So, we observe the child at work, say in mathematics for example. How can he manage numbers or operations, or problems... And then one of the remedial teachers for learning problems, it is generally the teacher specialized in psychopedagogy, takes the child in charge and organizes a program for him and tries to help the child to adjust in the classroom or to learn. When it is a problem of behavior, in fact, we try to speak with the teacher to understand what is the problem. For example, some children have problems with one teacher but they have no problem with another teacher, so we try to help the teacher and the children to mutually adjust. It is not easy, of course.

FC: Do you do any assessment at this time, Jean Claude?

JG: Yes, generally.

FC: What would you do?

JG: Most of the time I make an assessment of the child.

FC: For example, what would you do?

JG: For behavioral problems I used to work by interviews; interviews with the teacher, with the parents, with the child. I seldom use projective tests with children. When I use such material, I work with the following: drawing of a person, drawing of a family, Patte Noire (a French Transposition of Blacky Pictures), an equivalent of "Tell me a story...." I don't use C.A.T. or Rorschach but some of my colleagues use them. I recently used a behavior scale.

For learning problems, I use specific tests for reading, spelling or mathematics. According to the results obtained by the child, I make further investigations, if necessary. Then I meet the family before the psychological assessment. I usually use the WISC-R, the Bender-Gestalt test, and some other material of investigation in a Piagetian perspective.

For some years I have experienced a systemic approach with collective interviews including the child, the parents and the teacher. When I

think psychotherapy is necessary, I direct the family to the local Child Guidance Center. (Most psychotherapies in France are psychoanalytically-oriented.)

When I think that orientation to a special class is the best (or the least bad) solution, I ask for a meeting of the educative team (teacher, social worker, school physician, school psychologist, and any person able to give an opinion about the child). If this team agrees with an orientation to a special class, it sends the report of the case to the "Special Education Commission" which has to decide the orientation (with the agreement of the family).

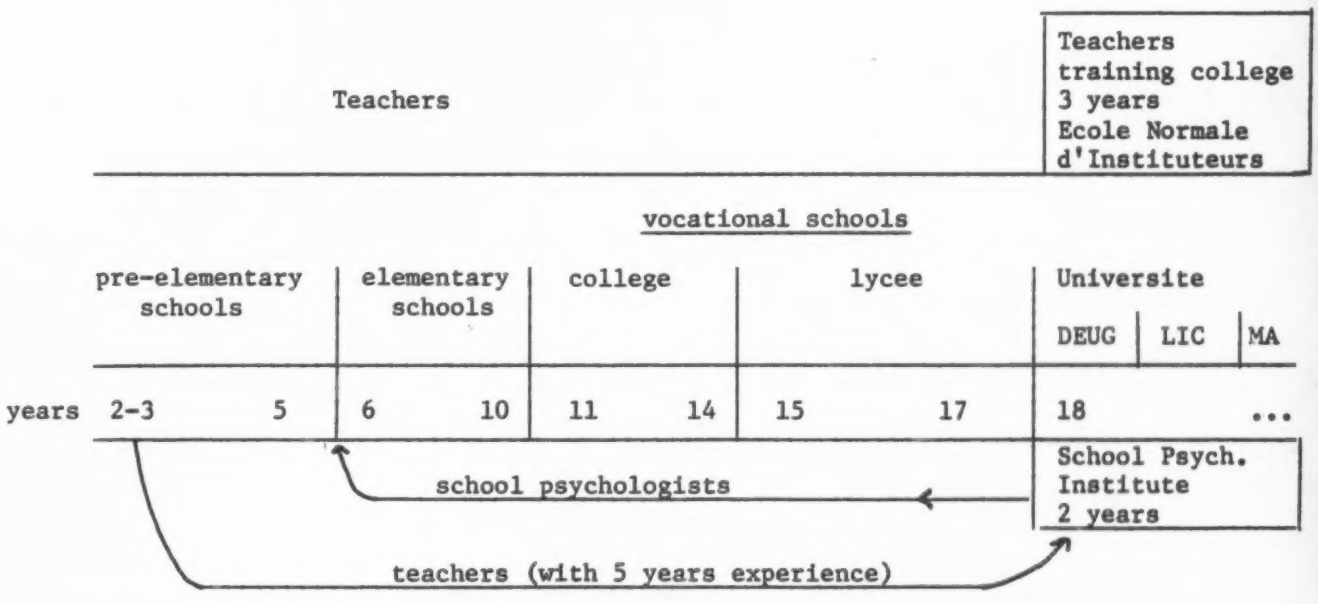
FC: What do you think is in store in the future for school psychologists in France?

JG: As to the future of school psychology in France (see School Psychology International, Vol. 5, Number 1, January-March 1984), in 1984, there is to be an important discussion between the Ministry of Education and the school psychologists. The Ministry has just made some important proposals and our Association has been consulted. It is not impossible that a new organization of school psychology in France (including a better and a higher level of training) can start soon.

Our French schooling may be characterized as follows:

First I must give you information, about the French school system.

The French School System



In 1983 the legal requirement to be a school psychologist (in state school) was the following:

1st--To have a 5 year experience as a teacher (in an elementary, pre-elementary or special school).

2nd--To be selected to follow a training in school psychology in a S.P. Training Institute (Aix, Besangon, Bordeaux, Grenoble, Paris), for two years and get the S.P. degree.

Each institute organizes the training according to its own policy and conceptions of S.P. Some emphasize clinical psychology, others social or developmental psychology...but all of them require that the "teachers-students" follow simultaneously with the training in school psychology, the general courses in psychology to get the D.E.U.G. The students who have already got this D.E.U.G. degree in psychology (10% of S.P. students in 1982) may prepare higher degrees (but this does not change anything in their future professional status as school psychologists). The special teacher's degree may be considered as an equivalent of the first year of the D.E.U.G. and these students may follow the second year courses (with an addition in mathematics and English).

University degrees in psychology

1st cycle		2nd cycle		3rd cycle	
DEUG 1st year	DEUG 2nd year	LICENCE 3rd year	MAITRISE 4th year	DESS (OR DEA) 5th year	DOCTORATE 3 years or more

The S.P. degree is prepared in an Institute of 3rd cycle but is not considered as a D.E.S.S. The A.F.P.S. (Association Francoise des Psychologues Scolaires) has asked for a better and longer training for many years. Our project is to obtain a transformation of the S.P. degree into a specialized degree (D.E.S.S.) in educational psychology at the same level (3rd cycle) as other specialized degrees (D.E.S.S. in clinical psychology, in social psychology, etc...). Vocational Councilor in France as in the U.S. help students to plan their future, but they have been trained to do psychological work too.

FC: Thank you Jean Claude, I see our time has come to an end. You have really been very informative and I have thoroughly enjoyed being with you and you have whetted my appetite for another interview with you. I hope we can continue this conversation at a later time. Merci beaucoup, à bientôt.

JG: It has been a pleasure--à bientôt.

A MONOLOGUE BY KALMAN BENYAMINI
HEBREW UNIVERSITY OF JERUSALEM, ISRAEL

DEVELOPMENTAL TRAINING OF PSYCHOLOGISTS

The author founded the Jerusalem Municipal School Psychological Service in 1965 and served as its director until 1984. During that period, the Service grew from an initial staff of 6 to eventually 80 psychologists (mostly on a part time basis). Most recently, activities included psychological services for kindergartens, elementary and junior high schools, and special education settings; individual and group mental health consultation for teachers; diagnosis and referral to and from special education; diagnosis and counseling for the learning disabled; diagnosis and counseling for the gifted; psychometric testing for grades 5, 7 and 8; a walk-in clinic for high school students; individual psychotherapy for children; family therapy and systems intervention; consultation to parents of young children; mental health projects; etc.

School psychological services in Israel are part of the municipal education departments, and are generally organized in separate administrative units with their own director, a senior psychologist. Psychologists are employees of the local authorities. An M.A. degree is a prerequisite for beginning professional status, as well as official licensing in psychology and membership in the Israeli Psychological Association. Specialized certification in a particular branch, e.g., educational psychology, is granted after two years of supervised work in an approved training agency.

The following monologue concerns one aspect of the Jerusalem Service's functioning. Something about the philosophy of its activity can be glimpsed from: Benyamini, K. The four clients of the school psychologist. SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY INTERNATIONAL, 1982, 3, 15-22.

* * *

Much has been said and written about university preparation of professional psychologists, much less about their in-service growth and development. Even though I have been involved in university teaching and training of clinical and school psychologists, I would like to discuss their further training from my professional position in educational and community psychological services.

From that vantage point, let me first outline my expectations from the university and its graduates. First of all, I view the university as an institution that selects capable people and grants its graduates the necessary title in psychology. Secondly, I expect the university to give students a basic education and orientation in selected branches of psychology, and

initial experiences with techniques pertaining to personal and clinical aspects of individuals and to the psychology of groups and organizations. Thirdly, it is imperative for graduates to bring with them the ability and willingness for further learning, personal sensitivity and growth potential. Fourth, educational psychologists should be inspired by an ideological commitment to children's upbringing in various educational agencies, and motivated to serve on their behalf. Finally, in order to successfully function under highly variable field conditions, psychologists operating in the community should have positive personalities.

Whereas this "shopping list" for an academic institution is rather modest in curricular content, requiring less than what both professors and students appear to value, it is quite pretentious in most other items. At this point I should state that I found little fit between the foregoing academic success of our psychologists and their ongoing professional performance. This fact might be related, among other things, to mentality and commitment differences between students and workers.

Service agencies tend to take their beginning workers as "rookies" and to start them from scratch. This, however, is not what distinguished the patterns that evolved from our concept of training. One administrative expression of the present approach was the considerable time allowance for personnel training and development (20% of all working hours), and the generous allotment of senior and expert personnel for supervision and promotion of junior and advancing psychologists (25% of all professional staff). In addition, my own principal pursuit as Service director was seeing to the fostering and enrichment of each individual worker. With all due respect to the professional "output" by the staff, the so-called "maintenance" function of supporting and accompanying the growth process of all psychologists commandeered the better part of my efforts and attention. This pursuit was guided by a leitmotif which I proposed to name "developmental training." It connotes two complementary processes: Developing the service together with developing the staff, or, in other words, development of the worker along with that of the work.

Established professions have fixed routines and procedures for educating and socializing their new recruits. At each phase of their progress, performance is thus guaranteed appropriate standards. In traditional clinical psychology, for example, a predetermined sequence of training and supervision leads trainees and junior psychologists towards gradual acquisition of applied knowledge, skills and techniques, modes of thinking and decision making, and professional common sense. Eventually, differences among trained clinicians tend to amount to variations in the quantity of acquired experience with a definite set of professional activities. Such regulatory stages of professional induction could be introduced to educational psychology as well, providing that ultimate professional assignments are well defined and crystallized, and methods of preparatory training are proven effective. Indeed, not unlike clinical psychology, one can discern in school psychology attempts to generate fixed role models to be emulated by newcomers and, accordingly, to shape a tradition of personnel development.

From the start, none of these patterns could be discerned in our School Psychological Service: Definitions of professional roles and prescriptions for expertise in their performance were intentionally absent. On the contrary, the educational field was a priori perceived as a wide-open space for psychological activity, extending from standard clinical and counseling functions through system and community-wide interventions. What determined the choice of actual professional roles was a combination of programmatic-conceptual guidelines and pragmatic-circumstantial considerations of feasibility. A major factor in the latter was the personnel that gradually joined the Service and the sum-total of their skills and inclinations at any given time. Yet, rather than assessing actual competence and accomplishment among staff, individuals' potential to successfully enter the field and develop in the process of creating their roles and fulfilling them, was examined. A constellation in which people are developing in a setting that is itself developing creates, as in a family, dynamic ingredients of motivation, dedication, involvement and excitement. It entails not only a sense of partnership to innovation, but also a different concept of job readiness. Instead of testing workers' maturity for given professional duties, their ability and willingness to grow into their self-made jobs were ascertained.

Carrying out a professional development policy of this kind was based on the presence of certain preconditions. For one thing, the Service was allowed considerable autonomy in determining branches of action and their philosophies. This autonomy, permitting the freedom to choose and shape professional structures, was given in exchange for satisfying certain demands of the educational system. Understandably, these included attention to problem students which, however, was viewed as an entry permit to the schools, not as a permanent arrangement for either psychologists or institutions. A second condition was self-scrutiny and incessant review of activities in terms of rationale, means and organization, weighing each and every one of them against the Service's obligations at large, and its contribution to clients. Such review process was related to a constant drive to broaden and vary services offered to the system. This condition, too, had its price in that professional functionaries had to yield and adjust their positions to ever-changing perspectives of the Service as a whole. Such concessions were found to be quite difficult to make by precisely those workers who had created their roles by themselves.

Another condition was the adoption of essential principles of community psychology. One of these was the transfer of approaches, attitudes, and actual projects from mental health professionals to trained personnel in the system. This principle is antithetical to professionals' tendencies of establishing permanent strongholds and assuming exclusive rights for certain activities. It also provided leeway for occasional new professional conquests. Acting according to the principle of "giving psychology away to the unwashed" was liable to cause some negligence in the performance of such professional chores that traditionally only psychologists were empowered to carry out, e.g., psychodiagnostics. Curiously, another price we had to pay was psychologists' affliction with what we called "the Prophet Jonah complex": You are working hard at imparting an idea, a technique, or some program to a

recalcitrant client--teacher or principal, even institution or administration--seemingly to no avail. Then one day, this same client, lo and behold, "discovers" a certain idea, technique or program, and never suspects that the great insight originated from you. "Art thou greatly angry?" (Book of Jonah, ch. 4, v. 9).

The human aspect of developmental training involves the view that psychologists are autonomous individuals, endowed with unique dispositions and styles, and are constantly developing in their own particular ways. Such conception is akin to the thinking of progressive education, where persons' own resources are taken to serve as guides for their destinies. In the present case, however, we are dealing with adults, not with children, and instead of vistas of culture we have a professional endeavor in progress. This theme found expression in a number of practices intended to facilitate sincere encounters between the needs and potentialities of each worker and those of the Service. In periodic individual sessions, psychologists were encouraged to assess their actual professional and personal condition, evaluate experiences gained in the recent past, and sketch their interests and directions for the immediate future. These summaries were confronted with the balance of the Service's obligations and options, such that the eventual work assignments resulted from an optimalization of requests and needs. This procedure instilled in staff members a sense of responsibility for the joint development of the Service and themselves.

The individual characters of these negotiated solutions created a considerable variety of developmental "careers." These included single vs. multiple duties at any given time; independent vs. team work; development in depth and accumulation of experience in one professional role vs. development in breadth and periodic role changes; walking the straight and narrow path of a traditional role vs. exploring new frontiers. This policy enables many different individuals to apply their singular proclivities, thus enriching both the professional potential of the Service and its interpersonal ambience.

The special emphasis on the mutual development of Service and workers generated some unique training patterns, in addition to customary individual and group supervision and learning seminars. One was the "activity team" assigned to fulfill a specified professional task, yet developing its functioning through continuous review of experiences and results, as well as inputs from experts and literature. Another pattern was quite the opposite: A training workshop in a certain technique or a new subject which, as its members gained proficiency, gradually became an activity team, while still training new candidates. The need to train beginning and advanced practicum students as well as junior psychologists provided opportunities for training supervisors from among our eligible staff. In addition to these task-oriented training patterns, the Service also featured programs for personal development and support groups.

In this type of greenhouse, where gardeners offered their best to the nursing of plants in their care, investment in "maintenance" came to be equivalent to the production of "output." Each and every one of the many

workers who persevered in the Service contributed to the enrichment of its activities and the differentiation of its resources. In this atmosphere, professional expectations of originality, innovation, initiative and ingenuity were realized, and dedication beyond the line of formal duty was paramount. These assets were acquired at no small price. One was a fragmentation of expertise and roles, which at a later time necessitated the planning of a training base common to all workers. Another cost was a syndrome or addiction to the dynamics of permanent development, which resulted in occasional dropping out from the Service's ranks of individuals to whom no further opportunities for growth could be offered. Fortunately, constructive solutions were, at times, found by persons taking advantage of additional experiences abroad or in other agencies at home. Still, individuals whose developing interests attracted them into domains beyond the Service's scope or possibilities could not always be kept in the fold. The third price was a heavy organizational and personal burden for the Service's director, which was eventually alleviated by delegating authority to associate directors.

The fact that the past tense has been used throughout this statement is not only related to its contents having been formulated some time ago. Later on, one could discern certain limitations and constraints upon the feasibility of developmental training. First was its supposed dependence on the quantitative increase of personnel and on the continued openness of options for the widening of services. Second were the decreasing degrees of freedom for autonomy incurred by the very realization of the previous policy, which brought about a fixation in the professionals' role structure and the clients' expectations. The latter constraint is, of course, a direct result of role crystallization after the formative period. This process might eventuate in the adoption of the classical model of training people into set roles, rather than encouraging them to create the roles for themselves. At this stage, expectations from university graduates are liable to accentuate the preparatory contents and technique elements we were ready to forego in the beginning.

Hard times, forcing budget cuts are, on the face of it, another adversary to the principles of developmental training. How to grow and make grow under conditions of shortage appears to be a vital issue. Are qualitative dynamics possible without quantitative increment? Cannot economy prescribe more efficient services, and cannot need bring forth invention of more sophisticated structures of professional roles and organizations? Indeed, the recent difficult years have produced significant reformulations of activities and new conceptions of service. In light of these experiences, developmental training may still be viable even in times of duress.